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Philoſophia Britannica:

OR,

A NEW and COMPREHENSIVE

SYSTEM

OF THE

NEWTONIAN

PHILOSOPHY, ASTRONOMY,

AND

GEOGRAPHY,

In a Courſe of Twelve Lectures,

With NOTES;

Containing the PHYSICAL, MECHANICAL, GEOMETRICAL, and EXPERIMENTAL PROOFS and ILLUSTRATIONS of all the Principal Propoſitions in every Branch of NATURAL SCIENCE:

ALSO

A particular Account of the INVENTION, STRUCTURE, IMPROVEMENT and USES of all the conſiderable INSTRUMENTS, ENGINES, and MACHINES;

With NEW CALCULATIONS relating to their NATURE, POWER, AND OPERATION.

The Whole collected and methodized from all the principal Authors, and public Memoirs;

And embelliſhed with EIGHTY-ONE COPPER-PLATES.

By B. MARTIN.

THE THIRD EDITION.

VOLUME III.

LONDON:

Printed for W. STRAHAN; J. & F. RIVINGTON; W. JOHNSTON; HAWES and Co. T. CARNAN and F. NEWBERRY, jun. B. COLLINS, in Saliſbury; W. FREDERICK, in Bath; And ſold by the AUTHOR, at his Houſe, in Fleet-ſtreet.

MDCCLXXI.

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GEORGIUS III. REX BRITANNIARUM

THE THIRD EDITION.

VOL. I. [illegible]

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR [illegible]

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LECTURE IX, X.

Of OPTICS.

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the Reaſon of their Imperfection *explained. Of* REFLECTING TELESCOPES, *with their Theory at large explained. Of the* CAMERA OBSCURA, *and its various Uſes. Of the* SCIOPTIC BALL *and* SOCKET. *Of the* SOLAR TELESCOPE; *and* SOLAR MICROSCOPES *of ſeveral Sorts. Of the new-invented* HELIOSTATA *of* s'Graveſande, *with its* Theory, *and Manner of Uſe explained.*

WE are now arrived to that Part of Natural Philoſophy which treats of *Viſion*, and the various Phænomena of viſible Objects, by Rays of Light reflected from Mirrours, and tranſmitted through Lenſes, which conſtitute the Subject of the moſt delightful Science of OPTICS (CXXV).

THE

(CXXV) 1. OPTICS is divided into Two Parts, CATOPTRICS and DIOPTRICS; the former treats of Viſion by Light reflected from Mirrours or poliſhed Surfaces, and the latter of Viſion effected by Light tranſmitted through Lenſes. Of theſe Lenſes the ſeveral Sorts in Uſe are the Plano-Convex A, the Double-Convex B, the Plano-Concave C, the Double-Concave D, the *Meniſcus* E, (which is convex on one Side, and concave on the other) and the Hemiſphere F. The Line G H, that is perpendicular to and paſſes through the Middle of each Lens, is called the *Axis* of the Lens, and that Middle Point the *Vertex* of the Lens.

Plate XLII. Fig. 6.

2. As

THE principal Things here to be conſidered are, Firſt, *the Rays of Light*; Secondly,

2. As Rays of Light fall on theſe Glaſſes, they are variouſly reflected and refracted, as above deſcribed in the Lecture. The Theorems which ſhew the different Effects of all theſe Glaſſes in reflecting and refracting the Rays of Light, and forming the Images of Objects, are inveſtigated ſeveral Ways; one of which is by *Algebra*. By this means Dr. *Halley* has raiſed a general Theorem extending to all the particular Caſes of every Kind of Optic-Glaſſes of a ſpherical Form, and which I have largely applied and exemplified in my *Treatiſe of Optics*.

3. Another Method of doing this is by *Fluxions*, which is eaſy and univerſal, comprehending all the Caſes of Mirrours and Lenſes of every Form. This I propoſe to exhibit and illuſtrate here for Variety, and for the Genuineneſs and Excellency of this Method above all others, it depending on Principles that are more of a Philoſophical than of a Mathematical Nature. It is as follows.

4. Let V B G be the Section of any curved Superficies of a Medium V G H I, V the Vertex, and A I the Axis of the Curve V G. From any Point in the Axis A let a Ray of Light A B be incident on the Medium in B, which ſuppoſe refracted to a Point F in the Axis. Then, by having given the Diſtance of the radiating Point A D, and the Sine of Incidence B D, we are to find the focal Diſtance V F after Refraction. Plate XLII. Fig. 7.

5. To do this, from the Point B let fall the Perpendicular B D to the Axis; and putting $AV = d$, $AB = z$, $BF = v$, $VD = x$, $BD = y$, and $VF = f$, then will $DF = f - x$, $AD = d + x$, $z = \sqrt{y^2 + d^2 + 2dx + x^2}$, and $v = \sqrt{y^2 + f^2 - 2fx + x^2}$; and therefore in Fluxions we have $\dot{z} = \frac{y\dot{y} + d\dot{x} + x\dot{x}}{\sqrt{y^2 + d^2 + 2dx + x^2}}$, and $v = \frac{y\dot{y} - f\dot{x} + x\dot{x}}{\sqrt{y^2 + f^2 - 2fx + x^2}}$.

condly, *the Glaſſes by which they are reflected and refracted*; Thirdly, *the Theorems or Laws relating*

6. But $\dot{z}$ and $\dot{v}$ being the Fluxions of the incident and refracted Rays, will repreſent their *Velocities* before and after Refraction, which Velocities we have ſhewn (*Annot.* CXVII.) are as the Sines of Incidence and Refraction m and n; whence $\dot{z} : \dot{v} :: m : n$. And from the Nature of Refraction (above explained) it is manifeſt that while the incident Ray increaſes, the refracted Ray decreaſes; therefore their Fluxions muſt have contrary Signs, *viz.* $+\dot{z}$, and $-\dot{v}$. Wherefore $\dot{z} : -\dot{v} ::$ $\frac{y\dot{y}+d\dot{x}+x\dot{x}}{\sqrt{y^2+d^2+2dx+x^2}} : \frac{f\dot{x}-y\dot{y}-x\dot{x}}{\sqrt{y^2+f^2-2fx+x^2}}$ $:: m : n$.

7. Now becauſe in thoſe Mirrours and Lenſes which are of common Uſe in *Optics* we regard only the Focus of thoſe Rays which fall very near the Axis, in which Caſe the Arch B V is very ſmall, and therefore V D $= x = o$ nearly; therefore $x\,x$ and $x\,\dot{x}$ may be rejected, without ſenſibly affecting the Value of the Expreſſions; therefore $m : n :: \frac{y\dot{y}+d\dot{x}}{\sqrt{y^2+d^2}} : \frac{f\dot{x}-y\dot{y}}{\sqrt{y^2+f^2}}$, and ſo $m \times \frac{f\dot{x}-y\dot{y}}{\sqrt{y^2+f^2}} = n \times \frac{y\dot{y}+d\dot{x}}{\sqrt{y^2+d^2}}$.

8. From which Equation we ſhall find $f =$ F V, in any Curve V G from the Equation expreſſing its Nature. Thus if V G be a CIRCLE, its Equation is $y\,y = 2r\dot{x} - x\,x$, (where C B $= r =$ the Radius) the Fluxion of which is $y\dot{y} = r\,\dot{x} - x\,\dot{x}$; and ſince $x = o$, we have $y\,y = o$, $y\dot{y} = r\,x$; and, ſubſtituting theſe Values in the general Equation above, we have $m \times \frac{f\dot{x}-r\dot{x}}{\sqrt{f^2}} = n \times \frac{r\dot{x}+d\dot{x}}{\sqrt{d^2}}$, and, dividing by $\dot{x}$, $m \times \frac{f-r}{f} = n \times \frac{r+d}{d}$; therefore $m\,df - m\,dr = n\,r\,f + n\,df$, and thence $\frac{m\,dr}{m\,d - n\,d - n\,r} = f =$ V E.

9. If

relating to the Formation of the Images of Objects thereby; Fourthly, *the Nature of Viſion*,

9. If the Medium be Glaſs, then $m : n :: 3 : 2$; therefore $\frac{3dr}{d-2r} = f$. And for parallel Rays AB, where d is infinite, we have $\frac{3dr}{d-2r} = \frac{3dr}{d} = 3r = f = VF$. But in Water, where $m : n :: 4 : 3$, we have $f = \frac{4dr}{d-3r}$, and $4r = f = VF$, for parallel Rays AB.

10. This Theorem (in *Art.* 7.) may be alſo adapted to the ELLIPSIS, the Equation of which Curve is $yy = px - \frac{pxx}{a}$, which in Fluxions is $y\dot{y} = \frac{p\dot{x}}{2} - \frac{px\dot{x}}{a}$; and, putting $x = o$, we have $yy = o$, $y\dot{y} = \frac{p\dot{x}}{2}$, which Values ſubſtituted in the general Equation give $\frac{\frac{3}{2}dp}{d-p} = f$; and when d is infinite, or the Rays parallel, then $\frac{p}{4} = VF$, the focal Diſtance of the Ellipſis VG, a fourth Part of the *Latus Rectum* from the Vertex, for the Sun-Beams. The Expreſſion is alſo the ſame for an HYPERBOLA VG, becauſe only $\frac{pxx}{a}$ is affected with a different Sign, and vaniſhes in that Equation alſo.

11. If VG be a PARABOLA, its Equation is $yy = px$, and in Fluxions $2y\dot{y} = p\dot{x}$; whence, ſince $x = o$, we have $yy = o$, $y\dot{y} = \frac{p\dot{x}}{2}$, which ſubſtituted as before give $\frac{\frac{3}{2}dp}{d-p} = f$; and in caſe of parallel Rays, or the Sun-Beams, $\frac{p}{4} = VF$, the Focus or Burning-Point of the Parabola.

ſion, and Structure of the Eye; and Fifthly, *the Structure and Uſe of the principal Optical Inſtruments*,

THE

12. Hence we obſerve, that in the Circle V G, whoſe Radius C B is equal to half the *Latus Rectum* of the Ellipſis or Parabola, *viz.* $r = \frac{1}{2}p$, the Focus will be at the ſame Diſtance from the Vertex V, or V F will be the ſame in all; for then it is $\frac{\frac{3}{2}dp}{d-p} = \frac{3dr}{d-2r} = f$ in all the Curves, and conſequently the *Circle*, *Ellipſis*, and *Parabola*, have all the ſame Degree of Curvature at the Vertex V in this Caſe.

13. When $d = 2r$, or $d = p$, then the focal Diſtance $f = \frac{3dr}{0} = \frac{\frac{3}{2}dp}{0} =$ V F becomes infinite; that is, if the Radiant Point A be at the Diſtance of the Diameter of the Circle, or the Parameter of the Conic Section from the Vertex V of the Medium of Glaſs, then the Rays will be refracted parallel to the Axis. And, *vice verſâ*, parallel Rays will be refracted from a Subſtance of Glaſs by a ſpherical Surface to the Diſtance of the Diameter of the Sphere; or from an elliptical or parabolical Surface to the Diſtance of the *Latus Rectum*, from the Vertex V.

Pl. XLII. Fig. 8.

14. After the ſame Manner we expreſs the ſeveral Caſes of a *Spherical*, *Elliptical*, or *Parabolical* reflecting Surface V B G, that is, ſuch a one where the Incident Ray A B is reflected from the Point B inſtead of being refracted; and then ſince the Angle of Incidence A B L is equal to the Angle of Reflection L B K, the Ray K B will be ſo reflected from the Point B as if it came from a Point F in the Axis, and therefore that Point F we muſt conſider as the Focus of reflected Rays. In this Caſe the Velocities of the incident and reflected Rays are the ſame, *viz.* $z = v$, and both affirmative; alſo $m = n$.

Whence $\frac{y\dot{y}+d\dot{x}+x\dot{x}}{\sqrt{y^2+d^2+2dx+x^2}} = \frac{y\dot{y}-f\dot{x}+x\dot{x}}{\sqrt{y^2+f^2-2fx+x^2}}$;

or,

THE *Rays of Light* are diſtinguiſhed into three Sorts, *viz. Parallel, Converging, and Diverging*

or, putting $x = o$, $yy = o$, and $y\dot{y} = r\dot{x}$, or $= \frac{1}{2}p\dot{x}$, (as above) then this general Theorem becomes $\frac{dr}{r+2d} = f = VF$, in the *Circle*; and $\frac{dp}{p+4d} = f = VF$, in the *Ellipſis*, *Hyperbola*, and *Parabola*.

15. If d, or AV, be infinite, as in parallel Rays, or the Sun-Beams, then $\frac{dr}{r+2d} = \frac{dr}{2d} = \frac{1}{2}r = f = VF$, in the ſpherical convex Mirrour VG; but if the ſaid Mirrour be *Elliptical*, *Hyperbolical*, or *Parabolical*, then $\frac{pd}{p+4d} = \frac{1}{4}p = f = VF$. But becauſe the Rays BK do not actually proceed from the Point F, that Point is in this Kind of Mirrours called the *Virtual Focus*.

16. If the Radius BC $= r$ of the convex Mirrour be infinite, the ſpherical Surface VBG will become a Plane, *viz.* a plane Speculum or Looking-Glaſs, as VBG in the following Figure; and the Theorem $\frac{dr}{r+2d} = \frac{dr}{r} = d = f = VF$, that is, AN is equal to VF, or the incident Ray AB is ſo reflected at B into BK as if it came from a Point F, juſt as far behind the Glaſs as the Radiant A is before it. Pl. XLII. Fig. 9.

17. Furthermore, if $r =$ BC be ſuppoſed greater than Infinite, or from affirmative to become negative, the Centre C will then lie on the contrary Side, the Speculum VBG will become concave, and in the Theorem above, r muſt have a negative Sign, which then will be $\frac{-dr}{2d-r} = f = VF$, which ſhews that in concave Mirrours, when d is leſs than $\frac{1}{2}r$, that is, when AV is leſs than $\frac{1}{2}$ CV, the Focus f will be affirmative, or on the ſame Side as before; or the Ray AB will be ſo reflected Fig. 10.

Diverging Rays. *Parallel Rays* are ſuch as in their Progreſs keep always an equal Diſtance

flected at B into B K as if it came from a Point F behind the Speculum.

18. When $d = \frac{1}{2}r$, or A V $= \frac{1}{2}$ C V, then is the Focus F at an infinite Diſtance, the Theorem then being $\frac{-dr}{0} = f$; ſo that in this Caſe all the Rays A B will be reflected parallel to the Axis, as B *K*. But when *d* is greater than $\frac{1}{2}r$, then the Focus *f* will be negative, or it will be $\frac{-dr}{2d-r} = -f$. Wherefore in this Caſe the Focus F will be on the ſame Side with the Radiant A.

19. Laſtly, when $d = r$, then alſo $f = r$; that is, if the Radiant A be placed in the Centre C, the Focus F will be there too; or, in other Words, Rays proceeding from the Centre will be reflected back upon themſelves.

20. On the contrary, (in all theſe Caſes) *converging Rays* K B are reflected to a Point in the Axis leſs diſtant than $\frac{1}{2}$ C V, or half the Radius. *Parallel Rays* *K* B are reflected to that Point F of the Axis where F V $= \frac{1}{2}$ C V. This will therefore be the *Burning Point of the Sun's Rays*, and is the *Solar Focus* above mentioned. *Diverging Rays* have their Focus at a Diſtance from the Vertex V, greater than half the Radius C V.

21. If V B G be an Ellipſis, Hyperbola, or Parabola, the Theorem is found in the ſame Manner to be $\frac{-dp}{4d-p} = f$, in concave Speculums of this Sort; and all that has been ſaid with reſpect to *d* and $\frac{1}{2}r$ in the ſpherical Speculums, is true of *d* and $\frac{1}{4}p$ in theſe. Thus when $d = \frac{1}{4}p$, the Rays will be reflected parallel to the Axis; and on the other hand, parallel Rays will be reflected to a Point in the Axis whoſe Diſtance from the Vertex V is $\frac{1}{4}p$. Thus the Sun's Rays are collected at the Diſtance of *one Fourth Part of the Parameter* (in

Diverging Rays. *Parallel Rays* are ſuch as in their Progreſs keep always an equal Diſtance

flected at B into B K as if it came from a Point F behind the Speculum.

18. When $d = \frac{1}{2} r$, or A V $= \frac{1}{2}$ C V, then is the Focus F at an infinite Diſtance, the Theorem then being $\frac{-dr}{0} = f$; ſo that in this Caſe all the Rays A B will be reflected parallel to the Axis, as B *K*. But when d is greater than $\frac{1}{2} r$, then the Focus f will be negative, or it will be $\frac{-dr}{2d-r} = -f$. Wherefore in this Caſe the Focus F will be on the ſame Side with the Radiant A.

19. Laſtly, when $d = r$, then alſo $f = r$; that is, if the Radiant A be placed in the Centre C, the Focus F will be there too; or, in other Words, Rays proceeding from the Centre will be reflected back upon themſelves.

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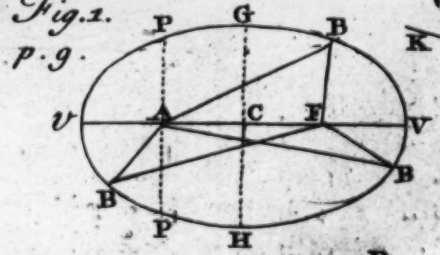
Vol. III. *Plate* XLIII. P. 9.

Fig. 1.
p. 9.



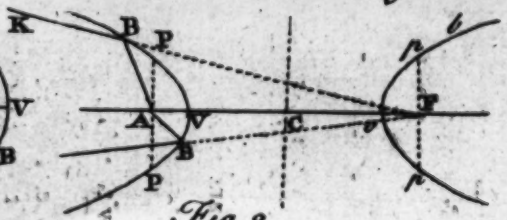


Fig. 2.
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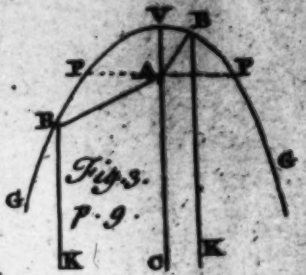

Fig. 3.
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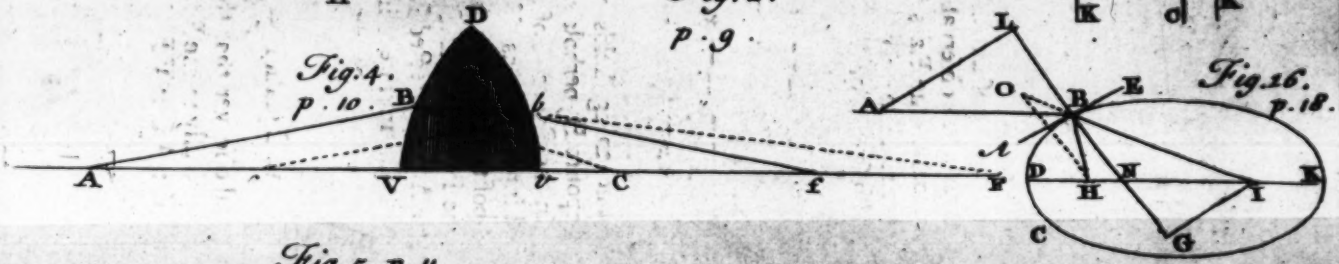

Fig. 4.
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Fig. 16.
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Fig. 5. p. 11.

Fig. 6. p. 11.

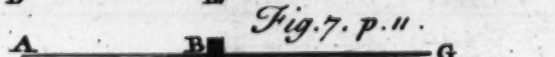


Fig. 7. p. 11.

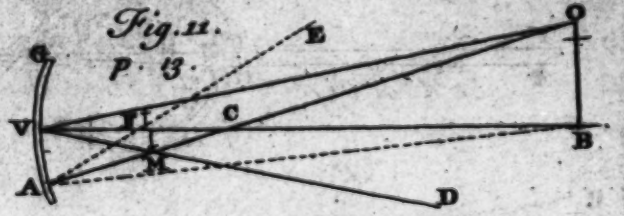
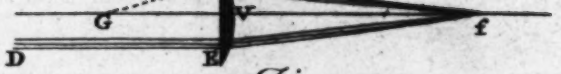


Fig. 11.
p. 13.

Fig. 12. p. 13.



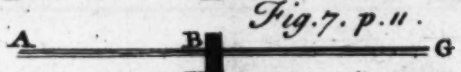


Fig. 7. p. 11.

Fig. 8. p. 11.

Fig. 9. p. 11.

Fig. 10. p. 12.

Fig. 14. p. 17.

Fig. 15.

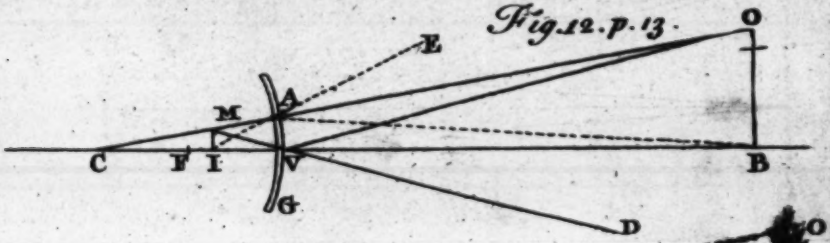


Fig. 12. p. 13.

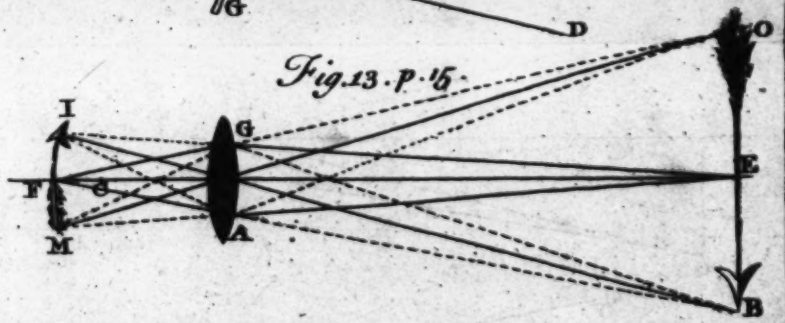


Fig. 13. p. 15.

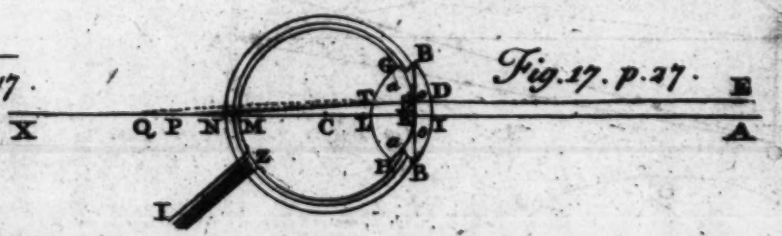


Fig. 17. p. 27.

tance from each other, as A B D C; ſuch as are the Sun's Rays, in their natural State, with Plate XLVIII. Fig. 4.

each Section) from the Vertex; and as this is the *Burning Point*, we ſee the Propriety of its being called the *Focus* of thoſe Curves.

22. As within the Curve of an Ellipſis V G *v* H there are two of thoſe Focus's, 'tis obſervable, that if the Radiant A be in one Focus, the Rays will be reflected to the other at F, wherever the Point B be taken in the Perimeter of the Ellipſe. For in this Caſe V *v* = *a*, A *v* = *x*, A P = *y* = ½ *p*, (for P P = *p*) A V = *d* = *a* − *x*, and F V = A *v* = *f* = − *x*; therefore writing *a* − *x*, and − *x* for *d* and − *f*, in the Equation above, we ſhall have $\frac{px - pa}{4a - 4x - p} = -x$, and ſo $4ax - 4xx = pa$, or $ax - xx = \frac{1}{4}pa$, which is the known Property of the Ellipſis. Plate XLIII. Fig. 1.

23. And the ſame thing holds with reſpect to the Foci of the two oppoſite Hyperbola's V B and *v b*; for if the Radiant be in the Focus A of one, any Ray A B will be ſo reflected into B K, as if it came from the Focus F to the oppoſite Hyperbola *v b*, as is evident in the Figure. In the Parabola V B G, if the Radiant be placed in the Focus A, the reflected Rays B K, tending to the other Focus at an infinite Diſtance, will be all parallel to the Axis V C, agreeable to what is ſaid above, *Article* 21. Fig. 2. Fig. 3.

24. If we reſolve the Equation $\frac{dr}{r + 2d} = f$, into an Analogy, we ſhall diſcover that the Axis of the Mirrour is divided harmonically in the Points V, F, C, and A; or that it is A V : A C :: V F : F C. For ſuppoſing it to be ſo, we have $d : d \pm r :: f : r \pm f$, which gives us the above Theorems $\frac{dr}{2d + r} = f$, in the convex Speculum; and $\frac{-dr}{2d - r} = f$, in the Concave. This

curious

with reſpect to Senſe. *Converging Rays* are ſuch as in their Progreſs approach nearer

curious Property of Speculums was firſt diſcovered by the late Mr. *Ditton*.

25. We now proceed to apply this Method to *Dioptric Problems*, that is, to find the Focus of Rays refracted through any Sort of Lenſes. To this End we muſt recollect, that in *Article* 8. we had $m\,df - m\,dr = nrf + ndf$; whence deduce this other Equation $\frac{m}{n} = \frac{r+d}{f-r} \times \frac{f}{d} = \frac{AC}{CF} \times \frac{VF}{AV}$, which in Words in thus expreſſed: *The Ratio of the Sine of Incidence to the Sine of Refraction is compounded of the Ratio of the Diſtances of the Foci* A *and* F *from the Centre* C, *and of the Ratio of their Diſtances from the Vertex* V.

Plate XLIII. Fig. 4.

26. If then we conſider B *b* (in the double convex Lens V D *v*) as a converging Ray refracted from Glaſs into Air, we ſhall find the Diſtance *v* f, at which the refracted Ray *b* f ſhall interſect the Axis of the Lens, by the Rule in *Article* 25. Only here we muſt conſider, that the Point A will be negative, or on the ſame Side with the Focus f, *viz* at A. And as the Refraction is out of Glaſs into Air, we muſt uſe the Ratio $\frac{n}{m}$ inſtead of $\frac{m}{n}$; then $\frac{n}{m} = \frac{Ac}{fc} = \frac{fv}{Av}$.

27. Let the Thickneſs of the Lens be V $v = t$, and v f $=$ f; alſo let the Radius of the ſecond Surface be $cb =$ r; then $\frac{n}{m} = \frac{f+r-t}{f+r} \times \frac{f}{f-t}$; whence f $= \frac{nfr-nft-ntr}{mf-mt+mr-nf} =$ *v* f the focal Diſtance required. But if the Thickneſs *t* be inconſiderable, as it commonly is, it may be neglected, and then f $= \frac{nfr}{mf+mr-nf}$; whence

nearer and nearer to each other, all of them tending towards a certain Point F, where

whence $f = \frac{m\,f\,r}{n\,r + n\,f - m\,f} = \frac{m\,d\,r}{m\,d - n\,d - n\,r}$, which Equation reduced gives $f = \frac{n\,d\,r\,r}{m\,r\,d - n\,r\,d + m\,d\,r - n\,d\,r - n\,r\,r}$; and putting $\frac{n}{m-n} = q$, we have $f = \frac{q\,d\,r\,r}{r\,d + d\,r - q\,r\,r}$. But in Glaſs, $q = 2$; and if we ſuppoſe the Lens equally convex, or $r = r$, we have $f = \frac{d\,r}{d - r} = v$ f, the focal Diſtance of the Ray A B after paſſing through the Lens, as required.

28. If d be infinite, then $r = f$; therefore parallel Rays, or the Sun-Beams, will be collected in a Point f, whoſe Diſtances from the Lens is equal to the Radius of Convexity. Plate XLIII. Fig. 5.

29. If one of the Radii r, r, be infinite, the Lens will be a *Plano-Convex*, and $f = \frac{2\,d\,r}{d - 2\,r}$; and for parallel Rays where d is infinite, $f = 2\,r$. Fig. 6.

30. If both the Radii be infinite, the Lens then is no other than a *plain Glaſs* terminated by two parallel Sides; and the Focus f will be at an infinite Diſtance for parallel Rays, or they will be parallel after Refraction as they were before. Fig. 7.

31. If one Radius r be infinite, and the other r negative, then will the Lens be a *Plano-Concave*; then will the Theorem be $\frac{-2\,d\,r}{d + 2\,r} = f$, which is therefore negative, or the Rays proceed diverging after Refraction. Fig. 8. When d is infinite, the Theorem is $\frac{-2\,d\,r}{d} = -2\,r = f$, or parallel Rays diverge from a Point F, at the Diſtance of twice the Radius of Concavity.

32. If both of the Radii be negative, the Lens becomes a *Double Concave*; and if d be infinite, and the Radii Fig. 9.

where they all unite; as the Rays of the Sun collected by a Glaſs, as CDF. *Diverging*

Radii equal, *viz.* r = *r*, the Theorem then is $\frac{dr}{-d-r} = \frac{dr}{-d} = -r = -f$; ſo that parallel Rays, or the Sun-Beams, are ſo refracted through a double and equally concave Lens, as if they proceeded from a Point f at the Diſtance of the Radius of Concavity from the Vertex of the Lens.

Plate XLIII. Fig. 10.

33. If one of the Radii, as *r*, be affirmative, and the other r negative, the Lens becomes a Meniſcus, and the Theorem then is $\frac{-2drr}{dr-dr} = \frac{-2rr}{r--r} = f$; which ſhews that when *r* = r, and *d* is infinite, the Focus f is at an infinite Diſtance, or the Rays are parallel after Refraction as before, as in the Caſe of a *Watch Glaſs*. If *r* be greater than r, or the Concavity leſs than the Convexity, the Focus f will be affirmative, or Parallel Rays will be converged to a real Focus; but if r be leſs than *r*, the Focus f will be negative, or parallel Rays will proceed diverging after Refraction.

34. We now proceed to determine the Poſition, Magnitude, Form, *&c.* of the Images of Objects formed by Mirrours and Lenſes, having firſt premiſed, that the Image of an Object always appears in the Place from whence the Rays diverge after Reflection or Refraction; or in other Words, the Image appears in that Place, which we have hitherto called the Focus of the Rays. This Sir *Iſaac Newton* has delivered as an Axiom, as being very evident, becauſe the Species, or ſeveral Points of the Image of an Object, are brought to the Eye by the reflected or refracted Rays.

Fig. 11, 12.

35. Let A V G be a reflected Speculum, C its Centre, V B its Axis, F the ſolar Focus; and let O B be an Object at the Diſtance V B; through the Centre C draw O A, which as it is perpendicular to the Speculum

verging Rays are thoſe which proceed from a Point, as F, and in their Progreſs recede

lum will be reflected back upon itſelf, and therefore the proper Focus of the Point O will be in the Line A O, and that of the Point B in the Line or Axis B V. Thoſe focal Points are eaſily found, thus: Draw O V and V D making equal Angles with the Axis V B; alſo draw B A, and A E, making equal Angles with the Axis O A; then ſhall thoſe two refracted Rays V D and A E interſect the Perpendiculars O A and B V in the Points M and I, which will therefore be the focal Points where the Repreſentation of the extreme Points O and B will be made; and conſequently all the Points between O and B will be repreſented between M and I, and therefore the Line I M will be the true Repreſentation or Image of the Object O B.

36. Hence alſo 'tis eaſy to obſerve, that the Poſition of the Object O B is inverted in the Image I M, and conſequently the ſame Parts of the Object and Image are on contrary Sides of the Axis in a *concave Mirrour*, where the Rays have a real Focus, or form a real Image: But in a *convex Mirrour*, where the Rays have no real but an imaginary Focus, or form not a real but an apparent Image, no ſuch Inverſion can happen, but the Object and Image both appear in an erect Poſition, as is eaſy to underſtand from the Figure. Plate XLIII. Fig. 11. Fig. 12.

37. Again; the Object and Image are commutable, or may be taken the one for the other in the Schemes. Thus if O B be the Object, then I M will be its Image; but ſuppoſing I M the Object, then will O B be its Image.

38. Hence alſo it appears, that if I M repreſent an Object placed before a convex Mirrour nearer to the Vertex V than the Solar Focus F, the Rays will be ſo reflected as to form an apparent Image O B behind the Speculum; and this Caſe will be every way the ſame with that of the convex Speculum reverſed.

39. It is farther obvious, that the Object O B and Image I M ſubtends equal Angles, both at the Vertex V and Center C of the Mirrour, whether concave or convex;

cede from one another towards the Parts CE.

THE

convex; for at the Vertex the Object O B ſubtends the Angle O V B = B V D or I V M, which the Image ſubtends, (by *Art.* 35.) And at the Center C, the Angles O C B and I C M, under which the Object and Image appear, are equal, as is evident by Inſpection, they being vertical to each other.

40. Therefore the Triangles O V B and I V M, alſo the Triangles O C B and I C M, are ſimilar, as having all their Angles reſpectively equal; therefore we have O B : I M :: V B : V I; alſo O B : I M :: B C : I C. That is, the Lengths of the Object and Image are proportional to the Diſtances from the Vertex or Center of the Speculum.

41. Hence in Symbols (putting O = Object, and I = Image) we have O : I :: d : f; whence $\frac{I\,d}{O} = f = \frac{d\,r}{2\,d - r}$; therefore O : I :: $2\,d - r$: r. Wherefore, by having given the Radius of the Speculum, you may place the Object at ſuch a Diſtance, that it ſhall bear any given Proportion to its Image, as that of m to n; for then, ſince $m : n :: 2\,d - r : r$, we have $m\,r = 2\,dn - r\,n$, and $m\,r + r\,n = 2\,d\,n$; conſequently, $d = r \times \frac{m+n}{2\,n}$ for a concave Speculum, and $d = r \times \frac{m-n}{2\,n}$ for a convex one.

42. From hence it is manifeſt, no Object can be magnified by a convex Speculum; for, becauſe in that Caſe n is greater than m, $r \times \frac{m-n}{2\,n}$ would be a negative Quantity, and ſo d would have a negative Value, which is impoſſible. And when $m = n$, then $d = o$; or the Object and Image are then only equal, when they coincide at the Vertex of the concave Mirrour.

43. In a concave Mirrour, while m is greater than n, it

THE Point F, where the Rays are collected, is call'd the *Focus*, or burning-Point, be-

it is plain the Diſtance d of the Object is greater than the Radius r of the Mirrour. But when $m = n$, then $d = r$; or the Object and Image are equal in the Center of the Mirrour. When m is leſs than n, or the Object is magnified, then d is leſs than r. Now this may be done two different Ways in a concave Speculum; for n may be affirmative, or the Image real and form'd before the Glaſs, then $d = r \times \frac{m \times n}{2n}$; or n may be negative, or the Image only apparent and repreſented behind the Mirrour, then $d = r \times \frac{n - m}{2n}$; in which Caſe, 'tis plain, the Object cannot be diminiſh'd. But laſtly, if n be infinite in reſpect of m, then $rn = 2dn$, or $r = 2d$, that is, $d = \frac{1}{2}r$. Or when the Object is placed in the Solar Focus, the Image is form'd at an infinite Diſtance, and infinitely large.

44. Such are the Theorems for *Specula*; thoſe for *Lenſes* are raiſed after a like Manner. For let G V A be a double and equally convex Lens; C its Center, or C V the Radius of Convexity $= r$; O B an Object, E V its Diſtance (in the Axis of the Lens) $= d$, I M the Image, and F V $= f$, the focal Diſtance at which it is formed. Then as the Point E in the Object is form'd in the Point F in the Axis of the direct double Pencil of Rays EGFA, ſo the Point O will be form'd at M in the Axis of the Pencil OGMA; and ſince theſe two Axes croſs each other in the Middle of the Lens at V, therefore the Points O and M, and (for the ſame Reaſon) B and I, will be on contrary Sides of the Axis E F, and conſequently the Image in reſpect of the Object is inverted. Plate XLIII. Fig. 13.

45. Becauſe the Angles O V B and I V M are equal, as being vertical, the Object and Image have the ſame apparent Magnitude if view'd from the Vertex of the Lens V; and are in Proportion to each other as their Diſtances from the Lens, that is, OB : IM :: VE : VF.

46. Hence,

becauſe there the Sun's Rays, being united within a very ſmall Compaſs or Circle, are great-

46. Hence, if (as before) we make OB : IM :: m : n :: d : f, we have $\frac{n\,d}{m} = f = \frac{d\,r}{d-r}$; whence $m : n :: d-r : r$; and ſo $mr = dn - rn$, or $mr + rn = dn$; wherefore $d = r \times \frac{m+n}{n}$. If $m = n$, then $2r = d$; and if n be infinite in reſpect to m, $r = d$. And if n be negative, or on the ſame Side of the Lens with the Object, then $d = r \times \frac{n-m}{n}$, which ſhews the Object in that Caſe is always magnified.

47. If the Lens be a ſingle or double Concave, the Rays cannot be converged to a Focus, (as is manifeſt from *Art.* 32.) and conſequently no real Image can be form'd, but only an imaginary one; and becauſe it is in this Caſe $d = r \times \frac{-m-n}{n}$, 'tis plain when $m = n$ then $d = r \times \frac{-o}{n}, = o$, that is, the Image can only be equal to the Object when they coincide at the Lens.

48. The Form of the Image IFM is not a right or ſtrait Line, but a Curve; for let VE $= d$, VF $= f$, and VO $= \mathrm{d}$, VM $= \mathrm{f}$; then ſince $\frac{d\,r}{d-r} = f$, and $\frac{\mathrm{d}\,r}{\mathrm{d}-r} = \mathrm{f}$, we have $f : \mathrm{f} :: \frac{d\,r}{d-r} : \frac{\mathrm{d}\,r}{\mathrm{d}-r}$; but if IFM were a Right Line, it would be $f : \mathrm{f} :: d : \mathrm{d}$. Neither is the Image of a circular Form, unleſs the Object be ſo; becauſe in that Caſe $f = \mathrm{f}$, which cannot be but when $d = \mathrm{d}$, or VE $=$ VO; ſo that if the Object be the Arch of a Circle, the Image will be the Arch of a Circle concentric with the Object, or elſe of a Conic Section, as before obſerved of Images form'd by Mirrours, *Art.* 36.

49. If the Object be a Surface, the Image will be a Surface ſimilar thereto; and ſince Surfaces are in duplicate

greatly conſtipated and condenſed, by which means their Action or Heat is proportionably

plicate Proportion of their like Sides, (*Annot.* II. *Art.* 3.) therefore $m : n :: OB^3 : IM^3$, in this Caſe. And if the Object be a Solid, the Image will be a ſimilar Solid, and they will be in the triplicate Proportion of their homologous Sides; whence $m : n :: OB^3 : IM^3$.

50. Though *Speculums* and *Lenſes* are of moſt general Uſe in *Optics*, yet it will be neceſſary to conſider the Property of a *Globe* or *Sphere*, as alſo of an *Hemiſphere*, with reſpect to their Power of converging the Rays of Light to a Focus. If therefore in the Theorem of *Art.* 27. we put $t = 2r =$ Diameter of the Globe, and becauſe $r = r$, we ſhall have $\frac{dr + 4rr}{2d - r} = f$, the Focus of diverging Rays; and when d is infinite, the Theorem is $\frac{dr}{2d} = \frac{r}{2} = f = V f$. Therefore a Globe of Glaſs will converge the Rays of the Sun to a Focus at the Diſtance of half the Radius. Plate XLIII. Fig. 14.

51. But in caſe the Globe be Water, then in the aforeſaid Theorem we have $m = 4$, $n = 3$, and the reſt as before; then by Reduction it will become $\frac{dr - 2rr}{d - r} = f$, for diverging Rays; and for parallel Rays, where d is infinite, we have $\frac{dr}{d} = r = f$, juſt twice as large as in Glaſs.

52. In an *Hemiſphere* of Glaſs, when the convex Side is turn'd towards the Radiant, having r infinite, and $t = r$, the Theorem will become $\frac{4dr + 4rr}{3d - 6r} = f$, the focal Diſtance of diverging Rays; but for parallel Rays it becomes $\frac{4dr}{3d} = \frac{4}{3}r = f$.

53. If the plane Side of the Hemiſphere be turned towards the Radiant, the Theorem for diverging Rays

portionably increaſed, and therefore Objects poſited in that Point will be greatly heated, burnt, or melted.

OF

will be $\frac{6dr+4rr}{3d-4r}=f$; and for parallel Rays $\frac{6dr}{3d}=\frac{6}{3}r=2r=f$; which is $\frac{2}{3}r$ greater than before

54. In an Hemiſphere of Water, the convex Part being towards the Radiant, we have $\frac{9dr-9rr}{4d-12r}=f$; and for parallel Rays it is $\frac{9dr}{4d}=\frac{9}{4}r=f$. But if the Radiant be oppoſed to the plane Side, then $3r=f$, greater by $\frac{3}{4}r$ than before.

55. We have hitherto conſidered the Property of *ſpherical Bodies* only, with reſpect to their Power of refracting a Ray of Light; let us now conſider the Nature of Refraction in Bodies whoſe Figures are derived from the Curves of the *Conic Sections*. In order to this, let DBKC be an Ellipſis, DK its tranſverſe Axis, H, I, its two Foci, and AB a Ray of Light parallel to the Axis be incident on the Point B. Let BE be a Tangent in the ſaid Point, and LG drawn perpendicular to the Tangent through the Point B; join HB and IB; make AB = IB, and from the Points A and I let fall the Perpendiculars AL, IG, on the Line LG; produce IB to O, and draw HO parallel to LG.

Plate XLIII. Fig. 16.

56. Then in the ſimilar Right-angled Triangles ALB, ING, we have AL : IG :: AB : NI :: IB : NI, becauſe AB = IB. But IB : NI :: IO : IH, becauſe of the ſimilar Triangles BNI and OHI. Again, the Angle HBG = GBI from the Nature of the Curve; whence GBI = HOB (= HBG) = BHO; therefore the Triangle HBO is Iſoſceles, or BH = BO. But IB + BH = DK, *per Conics*; therefore

IB

OF GLASSES there are two Kinds, *viz. Mirrours*, and *Lenſes*. A *Mirrour* or *Speculum* is that, which from one poliſhed Surface reflects the Rays of Light; and theſe are either *Convex*, *Concave*, or *Plane*, as will be ſhewn. A *Lens* is any tranſparent or diaphanous Body, as *Glaſs*, *Cryſtal*, *Water*, &c. through which the Rays of Light do freely paſs, and is of a proper Form to collect or diſperſe them. Of theſe there are ſeveral Species, as a *Plane Lens*, a *Plano-Convex*, *Plano-Concave*, *Double-Convex*, *Double-Concave*, and *Meniſcus*.

IB + BO = IO = DK. Conſequently, AL : IG (:: IB : NI :: IO : IH) :: DK : IH.

57. Since LG is perpendicular to the Tangent or Curve in the Point B, 'tis evident that AL is the Sine of Incidence, and IG the Sine of Refraction to the Radius AB = BI. If therefore a Solid be generated by the Revolution of an Ellipſis about its Axis, which Ellipſis has its tranſverſe Axis DK to the Diſtance between the Foci in the Ratio of the Sine of Incidence to that of Refraction; then parallel Rays AB, falling on every Point B of its Surface, will be refracted to the remote Focus I.

58. After the ſame Manner we proceed for the *Hyperbolic Conoid*; but as Lenſes made of theſe Forms are extremely difficult to work, and are likely never to be of Uſe (ſince the great Defect of theſe Glaſſes is owing to quite a different Cauſe, as we ſhall ſhew in the next *Annotation*) I ſhall ſay no more of them here, but refer the inquiſitive Reader to the *Dioptrics* of M. *Des Cartes*, who treats largely of this Subject.

I SHALL now conſider the different Properties and Effects of theſe Glaſſes in reflecting and refracting the Sun's Light, and forming the Images of Objects: And this all depends *(in Reflection of Light)* on that fundamental Law, *That the Angle of Incidence is equal to the Angle of Reflection.*

Plate XLVIII. Fig. 5.

LET EH be a concave Mirrour, V its Vertex, and C the Centre of its Concavity. Let A be a Ray of the Sun's Light incident on the Point E, and draw EC, which will be perpendicular to the Mirrour in the Point E; make the Angle CEF equal to the Angle AEC, then ſhall EF be the reflected Ray. Thus alſo HF will be the reflected Ray of the incident one DH, at an equal Diſtance on the other Side of the Axis BV.

IF now the Points E and H be taken very near the Vertex V, we ſhall have EF, or HF, very nearly equal to FV; but EF = FC; therefore FV = FC = ½ CV. That is, *the Focal Diſtance* FV *of parallel Rays will be at the Diſtance of half the Radius* CV *of the Concavity of the Mirrour, from the Vertex* V, *in the Axis* BV.

Fig. 6.

AFTER the ſame Manner, a *convex Mirrour* is ſhewn to reflect the Rays AE, DH, into EF, HF, as if they came diverging from

from a Point F in the Axis C V, which is half the Radius C V diſtant from the Vertex V. But ſince the Rays do not actually come at, or from the Focus *f*, it is called the *Imaginary or Virtual Focus.*

PARALLEL Rays falling directly on a *plane Speculum* are reflected back upon themſelves; if they fall obliquely, they are reflected in the ſame Angle, and parallel as they fell. Hence there is no ſuch Thing, properly ſpeaking, as a *Focus* belonging to a *plane Speculum*, neither *real* nor *virtual.*

THE Focus F, or *f*, of parallel Rays, is called the *Solar Focus*; becauſe in that the Image of the *Sun* is formed, and of all Objects very remote. But the Focus of any Object ſituated near the Mirrour will have its Diſtance from the Vertex more or leſs than half the Radius: The Rule in all Caſes being as follows:

Multiply the Diſtance of the Object into the Radius of the Mirrour, and divide that Product by the Sum of the Radius and twice the Diſtance of the Object; the Quotient will be the Focal Diſtance of a Convex Mirrour.

AGAIN; for a *Concave Mirrour, the ſame Product of the Radius into the Diſtance of the Object, divided by the Difference of Radius*

and twice the Diſtance of the Object, will give the Focal Diſtance V F *or* V *f*. And here we are to obſerve, that as twice the Diſtance of the Object is leſſer or greater than the Radius, ſo the Focus will be poſitive or negative, that is, behind the Glaſs or before it.

THE Image of every Object is formed in the Focus proper to its Diſtance; And ſince the Writers on *Optics* demonſtrate, that *the Angles under which the Object* O B *and its Image* I M *are ſeen from the Centre or Vertex of the Mirrour* C *are always equal*; it follows, that the Image I M will be always in Proportion to the Object O B, as the Focal Diſtance V F to the Object's Diſtance G V.

Plate XLVIII. Fig. 7.

THE Poſition of the Object will be always erect at a *poſitive Focus*, or behind the *Speculum*; diminiſhed by a convex, and magnified by a concave one. Hence, ſince a convex has but one, *viz.* an *affirmative Focus*; ſo it can never magnify any Object, howſoever poſited before it.

THE Poſition of the Image in a *negative Focus*, or that before the Glaſs, will be ever inverted; and if nearer the Vertex than the Centre C, it will be leſs; if farther from it, it will be greater than the Object;

Object; but in the Centre it will be equal to the Object, and ſeem to touch it.

THE Image formed by a *plane Speculum* is erect; large as the Life; at the ſame apparent Diſtance behind the Glaſs, as the Object is before it; and on the ſame Side of the Glaſs with the Object. Theſe Properties render this Sort of Mirrour of moſt common Uſe, *viz.* as a LOOKING-GLASS.

IF the Rays fall directly, or nearly ſo, on a plane Mirrour, and the Object be opake, there will be but *one ſingle Image formed*, or at leaſt be viſible; and that by the ſecond Surface of the *Speculum*, and not by the firſt, through which the Rays do moſt of them paſs.

BUT if the Object be luminous, and the Rays fall very obliquely on the *Speculum*, there will be more than one Image form'd, to an Eye placed in a proper Poſition to view them. The firſt Image being form'd by the firſt Surface will not be ſo bright as the ſecond, which is formed by the ſecond Surface. The third, fourth, *&c.* Images are produced by ſeveral Reflections of the Rays between the two Surfaces of the *Speculum*; and ſince ſome Light is loſt by each Reflection, the Images from the ſecond will appear ſtill more faint and ob-

ſcure, to the eighth, ninth, or tenth, which can ſcarcely be diſcerned at all.

WE proceed now to *Lenſes*; and here, ſince all Viſion by them is effected by the Refraction of Rays through their Subſtance, it will be too intricate an Affair to ſhew the particular Manner how Rays are collected by them to their ſeveral Focus's: It muſt ſuffice only to ſay, *That parallel Rays are refracted through a plano-convex Lens to a Point or Focus, which is the Diameter of the Sphere of its Convexity diſtant from it:*

THAT *the ſame Rays are collected by a double and equally convex Lens in a Point which is the Centre of the Sphere of its Convexity:*

THAT *parallel Rays are refracted through a plano-concave Lens in ſuch a manner as tho' they came from a Point diſtant from it by the Diameter of its Concavity:*

AND *that the ſame Rays are refracted through a double and equally Concave Lens, in ſuch manner as though they proceeded from a Point which is the Centre of the Concavity.*

AND in caſe of a double and equally convex Lens, we have this general Rule for finding the *Focus* of Rays univerſally, be the Diſtance of the Object and Radius of Convexity what it will, *viz.*

Multiply

Multiply the Diſtance of the Object by the Radius of Convexity, and divide that Product by the Difference of the ſaid Diſtance and Radius; the Quotient will be the Diſtance of the Focus required.

HENCE, if the Diſtance of the Object be greater than the Radius, the Focus will be *affirmative*, or behind the Lens; the Image will be inverted, and diminiſhed in Proportion of its Diſtance to the Diſtance of the Object.

AGAIN; if the Diſtance of the Object be leſs than the Radius, the Focus will be *negative*, or on the ſame Side of the Lens as the Object; and the Image will be magnified, and in an erect Poſition.

IF the Diſtance be equal to the Radius, the Focus will be at an infinite Diſtance; that is, the Rays, after Refraction, will proceed parallel, and will therefore enlighten Bodies at a vaſt Diſtance. Hence the Contrivance of the *Dark Lanthorn* for this Purpoſe.

LASTLY: If the Diſtance of the Object be equal to twice the Radius, then will the Diſtance of the Focus and Image be equal to the Diſtance of the Object; and conſequently the Image will be equal in Magnitude to the Object, but inverted. Hence the Uſe of theſe Lenſes to Painters, and Draught-

Draught-Men in general, who have often Occaſion for the Images of Objects as large as the Life, to delineate or draw from.

As to *Plano-concaves*, they, having no real Focus, form no Images of Objects; ſo that we ſhall paſs them to proceed to the Structure of the Eye, the Manner of performing Viſion therein, the ſeveral Defects thereof, and how remedied by Glaſſes; which will be illuſtrated by the Diſſection of a *natural Eye*, and exemplified by an *artificial one*.

THE *Eye* is the *noble Organ of Sight or Viſion:* It conſiſts of various Coats and Humours, of which there are Three remarkable, *viz.* (1.) The *Aqueous or Watry Humour*, which lies immediately under the *Cornea*, and makes the Eye globular before. (2.) The *Vitreous Humour*, which is by much the greateſt Quantity, filling the Cavity of the Eye, and giving it the Form of a Globe or Sphere. (3.) The *Cryſtalline Humour*, ſituated between the other two, near the Fore-part of the Eye, and is the immediate Inſtrument of Sight; for being of a lenticular Form, it converges the Rays, which paſs through the Pupil, to a Focus on the Bottom of the Eye, where the Images of

of external Objects are by that means form'd and repreſented (CXXVI).

OVER

(CXXVI) 1. In order to exhibit a juſt Idea of the *true Theory of Viſion*, I ſhall here give a more exact and particular Deſcription of the EYE and of its ſeveral Parts, with an Account or Calculation of the various Refractions of the Rays of Light through the ſeveral Humours, for forming the Images of Objects on the *Retina* at the Bottom of the Eye.

2. To this End I have here repreſented a Section of the *Human Eye* in its true or natural Magnitude, which conſiſts of two Segments of two different Spheres, *viz.* one larger, as B N B, and a leſſer, B I B. The larger Segment conſiſts of three Tunics or Coats, of which the outmoſt is of a hard, thick, white, opake Subſtance, called the *Sclerotica*, as B N B. Within this is another thin, ſoft, and blackiſh Tunic, called the *Choroides*; which ſerves as it were for a Lining to the other, or rather as a delicate *Stratum* for the third Tunic called the *Retina*, which is a curious fine Expanſion of the Optic Nerve Y Z over all the larger Segment of the Eye, every Way to B B. Plate XLV. Fig. 17.

3. The leſſer Segment conſiſts of one Coat or Tunic, called the *Cornea*, as reſembling a Piece of tranſparent Horn; this is more convex than the other, and is denoted by B I B. Within this Coat, at a ſmall Diſtance, is placed a circular Diaphragm, as B *o*, B *o*, called the *Uvea*, or *Iris*, becauſe of the different Colours it has in different Eyes. In this is a round Hole in the Middle called the Pupil as *o o*, which in ſome Creatures is of a different Figure, *viz.* oblong, as in Cows, Cats, &c.

4. As the *Cornea*, by its Tranſparency, admits the Light to enter the Eye, ſo the Pupil is deſtined to regulate the Quantity of the Rays that ought to enter the interior Part of the Eye for rendering Viſion diſtinct, and the Images of Objects properly illumined. To this Purpoſe it is compoſed of two Sets of muſcular Fibres, *viz.* one of a circular Form, which, by corrugating, contract or diminiſh the Pupil; and the other is an *Annulus*

OVER all the Bottom of the Eye is ſpread a very fine and curious Membrane call'd the

nulus of radial Fibres, tending every where from the Circumference B B of the *Uvea* to the Centre of the Pupil, which, by contracting, dilate and enlarge the Pupil of the Eye.

5. Immediately within the *Uvea* is another *Annulus* of radial Fibres, which on the extreme Part is every where connected with the *Cornea*, where it joins the *Sclerotica* at B B; and on the other Circumference it is connected with the anterior Part of the *Capſula* including the Cryſtalline Humour; and is called the *Ligamentum Ciliare*, and ſometimes the *Proceſſus Ciliares*, and is denoted by B *a*, B *a*.

6. The Bulk or Body of the Eye is made up of three Subſtances, commonly called *Humours*, *viz.* the *Aqueous*, the *Cryſtalline*, and the *Vitreous*. The *Aqueous Humour* is properly ſo called, being every Way like Water, in reſpect of its Conſiſtence, Limpidity, ſpecific Gravity, and refractive Power. It is contained between the *Cornea* and the *Ligamentum Ciliare*, as B I B *a a* B. This Humour gives the protuberant Figure to the *Cornea*, which makes the firſt Refraction of the Rays of Light.

7. The ſecond Humour (improperly ſo call'd) is the *Cryſtalline*, having its Name from reſembling Cryſtal in Clearneſs and Tranſparency. It is denoted by G K H L, and is in Form of a thick Lens unequally convex, whoſe anterior Surface G K H is the Segment of a larger Sphere, and its poſterior Surface G L H the Segment of a leſſer. This Humour is of a ſolid Conſiſtence, and very little exceeds the ſpecific Gravity of Water, *viz.* in the Proportion of 11 to 10 nearly, as I have often found by Experiment. It is contained within a moſt delicate Tunic or *Capſula*, called *Arachnoides*, every where pellucid as the Cryſtalline itſelf.

8. The third Humour is the *Vitreous* (being clear as *Glaſs*) and is largeſt of all in Quantity, filling the whole Orb of the Eye B M B, and giving it a globular Shape.

This

the *Retina*, which is an Expanſion of the *Optic Nerve*; upon which the Images of Objects

This Humour is exactly like the White of an Egg, and but a little exceeds the ſpecific Gravity and refractive Power of Water.

9. We proceed now to give the Dimenſions of the Eye and its ſeveral Parts (in order for Calculation) as they have been determined by actual Meaſurement in a great Number of human Eyes with the greateſt Care and Exactneſs. Theſe Meaſures are expreſs'd in Tenths of an Inch, as follows.

	Tenths.
The Diameter of the Eye from Outſide to Outſide, taken at a Mean from ſix adult Eyes, — —	I N = 9,4
The Radius of Convexity of the *Cornea*,	B I B = 3,3294
The Radius of Convexity of the anterior Surface of the Cryſtalline, from twenty-ſix Eyes, — —	G K H = 3,3081
The Radius of Convexity of the hinder Surface, from the ſame Eyes, at a Mean, — — —	G L H = 2,5056
The Thickneſs of the Cryſtalline, from the ſame Eyes, — —	K L = 1,8525
The Thickneſs of the *Cornea* and Aqueous Humour together, —	I K = 1,0358

10. Moreover, it is found by Experiment, that the Ratio of Refraction at the *Cornea* I is as 4 to 3, being the ſame with that of Air into Water; the Ratio of Refraction at K as 13 to 12, and at L as 12 to 13. Theſe Things premiſed, let A X be the Axis of the Eye, and E D a Ray parallel thereto, and incident on the *Cornea* very near it at D; we are to determine the Foci of the ſeveral Refractions of this Ray at the ſeveral Surfaces I, K, and L.

11. The firſt Focus is determined by the Theorem (in *Annot.* CXXV. *Art.* 27.) $\frac{m\,dx}{m\,d - n\,d - n\,x}$; for ſuppoſing

Objects being painted and impreſs'd, they are by that means convey'd to the *Common Senſory*

poſing all behind the *Cornea* B I B were the aqueous Humour continued, then ſince in this Caſe $m = 4$, $n = 3$, $r = 3{,}3294$, and d is infinite, we have $f = 4r = 13{,}3176 = IQ$, the focal Diſtance from I by the firſt Refraction.

12. The Ray tending by this Means from D to Q falls converging on the anterior Surface of the Cryſtalline Humour at S. We muſt now find the Focus of the converging Ray D S refracted through a Medium every where the ſame with the Cryſtalline Humour. This we do by the ſame Theorem; for at K we have $m : n :: 13 : 12$, and $r = 3{,}308$ and $IQ - IK = 12{,}2818 = KQ = d$, the Diſtance of the Radiant Q from the Point K; but d is in this Caſe negative, or $-d$, and the Theorem is $\frac{-mdr}{-md+dn-nr} = f = 10{,}06 = KP$, the new focal Diſtance from K, by the ſecond Refraction.

13. The Ray converging from S to P is intercepted by the hinder Surface of the Cryſtalline at T, and meeting there with a Medium of different Denſity, and a concave Surface, is again refracted by it; and here we have $m : n :: 12 : 13$, (by *Art.* 10.) alſo the Radius r is negative, as well as d; and here it is $-r = 2{,}5056$, and $-d = KP - KL = LP = 8{,}31$; therefore the Theorem is $\frac{mdr}{-md+nd+nr} = \frac{12dr}{d+13r} = f = LM = 6{,}112$, the laſt focal Diſtance required.

14. The Point M therefore is that in which parallel Rays E D are collected within the Eye, and where the Images of remote Objects are formed. The Diſtance of this Point from the *Cornea* is $IM = IK + KL + LM = 1{,}036 + 1{,}852 + 6{,}112 = 9$. Then $IN - IM = 9{,}4 - 9 = 0{,}4 = NM$. Now the Thickneſs of the *Sclerotica* is by the Micrometer found to be very nearly 0,25; then $0{,}4 - 0{,}25 = 0{,}15$; which is much about

Objects being painted and impressed, they are by that means convey'd to the Common [illegible]

[illegible] behind the Cornea RTB, were the aqueous Humour continued, then since in this Case [illegible] 94, and [illegible] we have [illegible] 13,3176 = ΦQ, the focal Distance found by the first Refraction.

12. The Ray tending [illegible] this Manner falls converging on the anterior Surface of the Crystalline Humour at [illegible]. We must now [illegible] the converging Ray DS [illegible] every where the same with the Crystalline [illegible] This we do by the same Theorem [illegible] 14, [illegible] and [illegible] 5,908 [illegible] 12,2813 = KQ = d, the Distance [illegible] from the Point [illegible], but d is in this Case [illegible] d, and the Theorem is [illegible] = KI, the new focal Distance from [illegible] Refraction.

13. The Ray [illegible] from [illegible] by the [illegible] Surface of the Crystalline [illegible] ing [illegible] a Medium of [illegible] concave Surface is again refracted [illegible] have [illegible] 13, by [illegible] is negative [illegible] and [illegible] KI [illegible]

Therefore [illegible]

= 6,112, the [illegible] Distance [illegible]

[illegible]

Vol. III. *Plate* XLIII. *P.* 31.

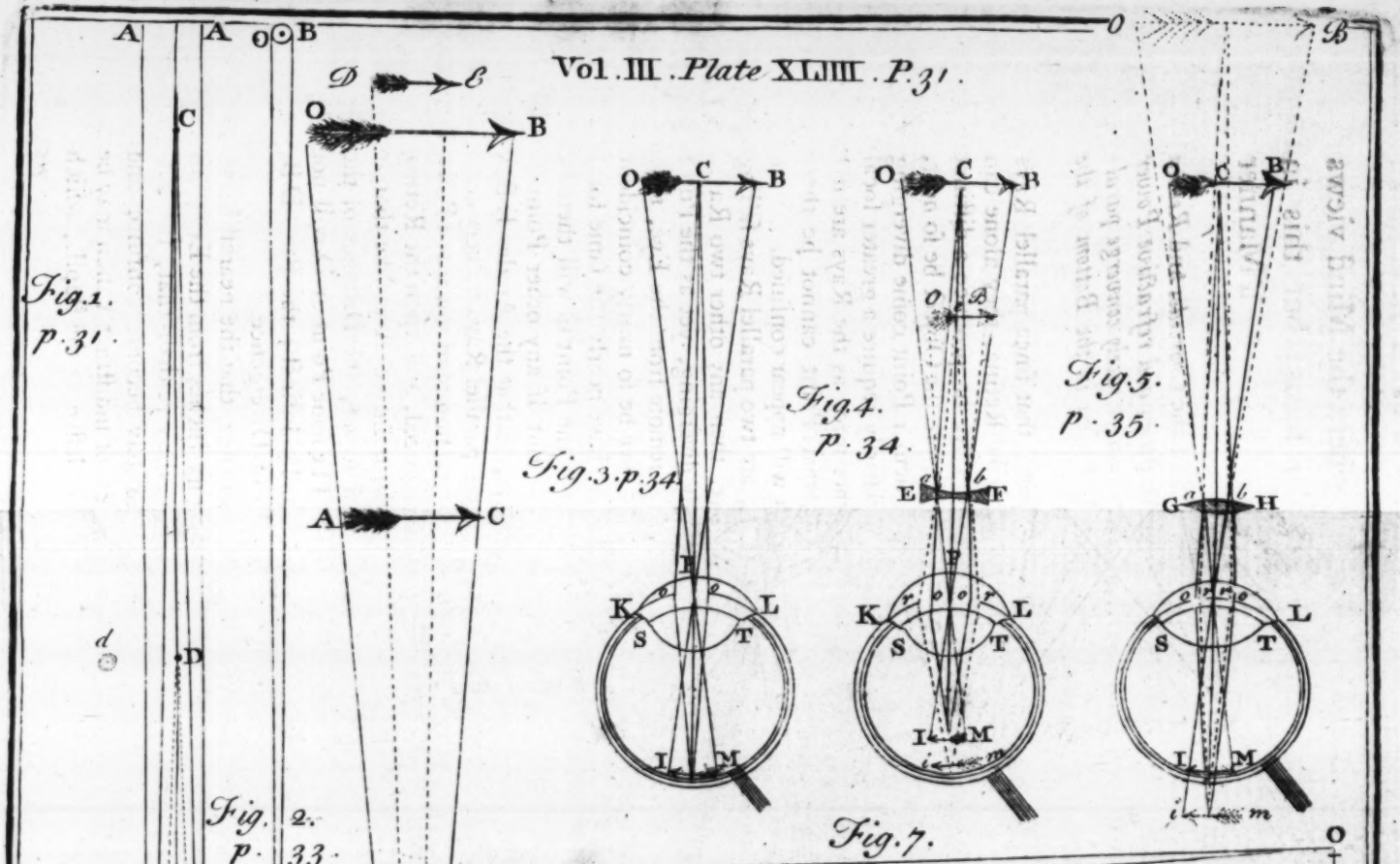


Fig. 1. *p.* 31.

Fig. 2. *p.* 33.

Fig. 3. *p.* 34.

Fig. 4. *p.* 34.

Fig. 5. *p.* 35.

Fig. 7.

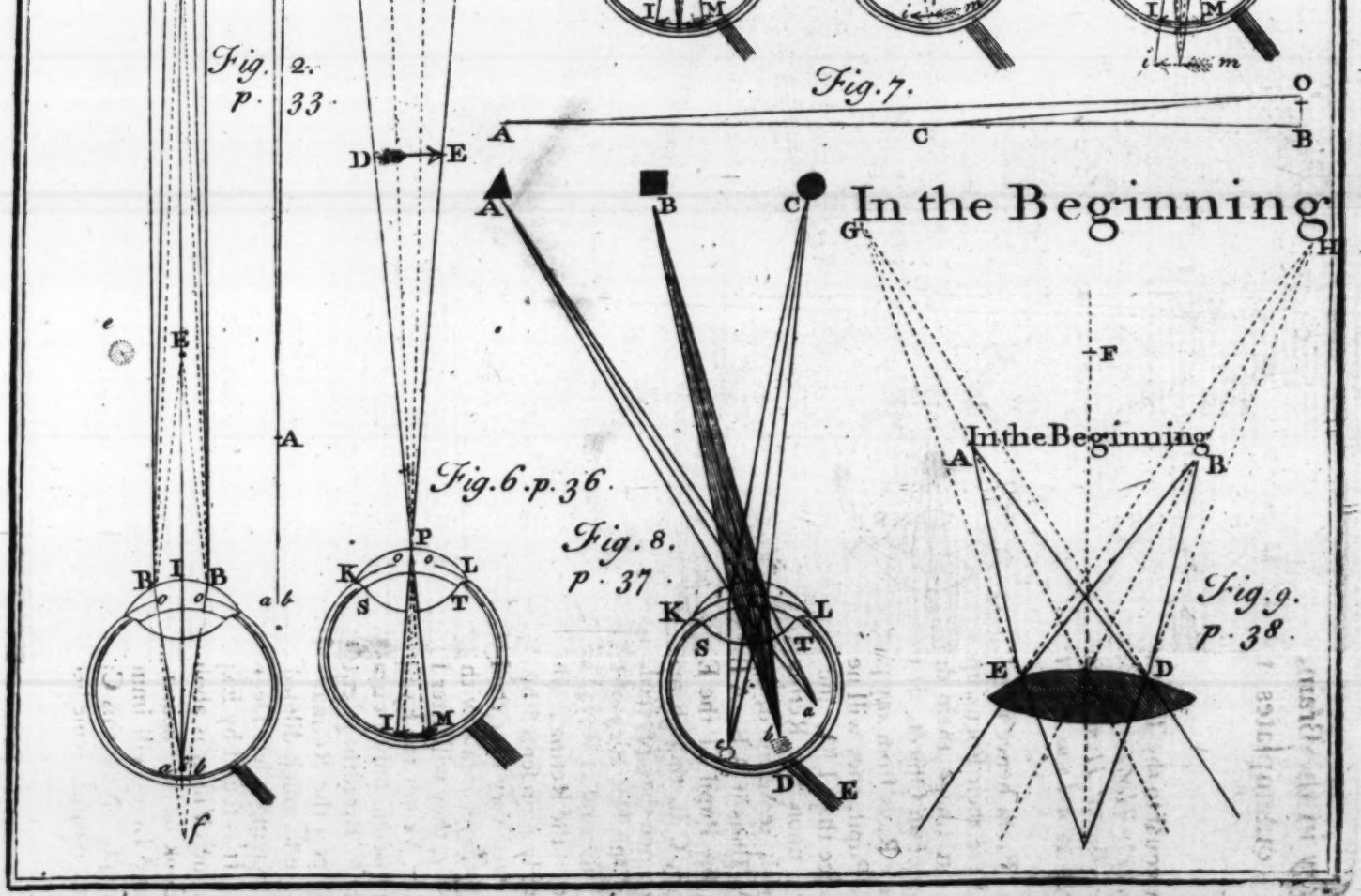


Fig. 2. p. 33.
Fig. 7.
In the Beginning
Fig. 6. p. 36.
Fig. 8. p. 37.
Fig. 9. p. 38.
In the Beginning

Senſory in the Brain, where the Mind views and contemplates their Ideas; but this in a Manner

about equal to the Thickneſs of the *Choroides* and *Retina* together. *Hence we ſee the Forms and refractive Power of thoſe ſeveral Humours are ſuch as nicely converge parallel Rays to a Focus upon the Retina in the Bottom of the Eye.*

15. From hence it follows, that ſince parallel Rays only have their Focus upon the Retina, they alone can paint an Image there diſtinctly, or produce a diſtinct Viſion of an Object. If therefore the Object be ſo near, that the Rays from any particular Point come diverging to the Pupil, they will neceſſarily require a greater focal Diſtance than I M, and therefore, as the Rays are not united upon the Retina, that Point cannot be there diſtinctly repreſented, but will appear confuſed.

16. Thus if A B, A B, are two parallel Rays falling upon the Pupil of the Eye, then any other two Rays, as C B, C B, though really diverging, yet as the Point C, whence they proceed, is remote from the Eye, they will at the Entrance of the Eye be ſo nearly coincident with the parallel Rays, as to have nearly the ſame focal Point on the Retina; whence the Point C will there be diſtinctly repreſented by *c*. But if any other Point E be viewed very near the Eye, ſo that the Angles E B A which they contain with the parallel Rays be very conſiderable, they will after Refraction tend towards a Point *f* in the Axis of the Eye produced, and upon the Retina will repreſent only a circular indiſtinct Area like that at *e*, whoſe Breadth is equal to *a b*, the Diſtance of the Rays upon the Retina. The ſame Point at D will not be quite ſo much dilated and indiſtinct; the Rays D B, D B, having a leſs Degree of Divergence. Plate XLIV. Fig. 1.

17. It is found by Experience, that the neareſt Limit of diſtinct Viſion is about ſix Inches from the Eye; for if a Book be held nearer to the Eye than that, the Letters and Lines will immediately become confuſed and indiſtinct. Now this Cauſe of indiſtinct Viſion may be in ſome meaſure remedied by leſſening the Pupils, which

we

a Manner too myſterious and abſtruſe for us to underſtand.

THE

we naturally do in looking at near Objects, by contracting the annular Fibres of the *Uvea*; and artificially, by looking through a ſmall Hole made with a Pin in a Card, &c. for then a ſmall Print may be read much nearer than otherwiſe; the Reaſon is plain, for the leſs the Diameter of the Aperture or Pupil B B, the leſs will the Rays diverge in coming from D or E, or the more nearly will they coincide with parallel Rays.

18. Beſides the Contraction of the Pupil, Nature has furniſhed the Eye with a Faculty of adapting the Conformation of the ſeveral Parts to the reſpective Poſitions of Objects as they are nigh or more remote; for this Purpoſe, the *Cornea* is of an elaſtic yielding Subſtance, and the Cryſtalline is incloſed with a little Water in its *Capſula*, that by the Contraction and Relaxation of the Ciliary Ligament, the Convexity of both the Surfaces of the *Capſula* may be a little alter'd, and perhaps the Poſition of the Cryſtalline, by which means the Diſtance from the Retina may be fitted and adjuſted to nigh Objects, ſo as to have their Images very diſtinctly formed upon the Retina.

19. I have mentioned near Objects only, (by which I mean ſuch as are near the Limit of diſtinct Viſion, as between ſix and a hundred Inches Diſtance) becauſe Objects more remote require ſcarce any Change of the Conformation of the Eye, the focal Diſtance in them varying ſo very little. Thus ſuppoſe all the Refractions of the Eye were equivalent to that of a double and equally convex Lens, whoſe Radius $r = 1$ Inch; if then the Object were 10 Inches diſtant, or $d = 10$, we ſhould have the focal Diſtance $f = \frac{dr}{d-r} = \frac{10}{9} = 0,11111$; and if another Object be diſtant 100 Inches, then $d = 100$, and $f = \frac{dr}{d-r} = \frac{100}{99} = 0,10101$. The Difference between theſe two focal Diſtances is but 0,0101,

THE *Cryſtalline Humour* is of ſuch a Convexity, that in a ſound State of the Eye its Focus

viz. the hundredth Part of an Inch, which the Eye can eaſily provide for. If we go beyond this, ſuppoſe to an Object 1000 Inches diſtant, we have $f = \frac{dr}{d-r} =$ 0,1001001, which is only a thouſandth Part of an Inch leſs than the former, and is therefore inconſiderable.

20. We have ſeen the natural Limit of diſtinct Viſion for *near Objects*; we ſhall now conſider what the Limit on the other hand may be for *remote Objects*; for Objects may appear indiſtinct and confuſed by being removed too far from the Eye, as well as when they are too near it. And in this Caſe we find Objects will appear diſtinct ſo long as their Parts are ſeparate and diſtinct in the Image form'd on the Retina. Thoſe Parts will be ſeparate ſo long as the Axis of the Pencils of Rays which paint them are ſo at their Incidence on the Retina; that is, ſo long as the Angle they contain is not leſs than *one Tenth of a Degree*; for it is found by Experience that Objects and their Parts become indiſtinct when the Angle they ſubtend at the Pupil of the Eye is leſs than that Quantity.

21. Thus ſuppoſe O B be a Circle $\frac{1}{10}$ of an Inch Diameter, it will appear diſtinct with its central Spot till you recede to the Diſtance of 6 Feet from it, and then it becomes confuſed; and if it be $\frac{1}{2}$ of an Inch, it will begin to be confuſed at 12 Feet Diſtance, and ſo on; in which Caſes the Angle ſubtended at the Eye, *viz.* O A B, is about $\frac{1}{10}$ of a Degree, or 6 Minutes. And thus all Objects, as they are bigger, appear diſtinct at a greater Diſtance; a ſmall Print will become confuſed, at a leſs Diſtance than a larger; and in a Map of *England* the Names of Places in ſmall Letters become firſt indiſtinct, where thoſe in Capitals are very plain and legible; at a bigger Diſtance theſe become confuſed, while the ſeveral Counties appear well defined to a much Plate XLIV. Fig. 2.

Focus falls preciſely on the *Retina*, and there paints the Objects; and therefore Viſion

greater Diſtance. Theſe alſo at laſt become ſo indiſtinct as not to be known one from another, when at the ſame Time the whole Iſland preſerves its Form very diſtinctly to a very great Diſtance; which may be ſo far increaſed, that it alſo at laſt will appear but a confuſed and unmeaning Spot.

22. We have ſeen the Cauſes of indiſtinct Viſion in the *Objects*, and ſhall now enquire what may produce the ſame in the *Eye* itſelf. And firſt it is to be obſerved, that there is a proper Degree of Convexity in the *Cornea* K P L, and *Cryſtalline* S T, for converging parallel Rays to a Focus on the Bottom of the Eye in a ſound State; hence every diſtant Object O B will have its Image I M accurately depicted on the *Retina*, and by that means produce diſtinct Viſion.

Plate XLIV. Fig. 3.

23. But if the *Cornea* KPL, or Cryſtalline S T, or both, ſhould chance to be a little more convex than juſt, it will cauſe the Pencil of Rays *o* C *o*, which comes to the Pupil *o o*, from any Point C in the Object O B, to unite in a Focus before they arrive at the Retina in the Bottom of the Eye; the Image I M of the Object O B will be formed in the Body of the Vitreous Humour, and will therefore be very confuſed and indiſtinct on the Retina at *i m*. A Perſon having ſuch an Eye is called a *Myops*, in Alluſion to the *Eye of a Mouſe*, by reaſon of its great Convexity.

Fig. 4.

24. To remedy this Defect of the Eye, a concave Lens E F is applied before it; for by this means the Rays C *a*, C *b*, which fall diverging on the Lens, will, after Refraction through it, be made to proceed ſtill more diverging, *viz.* in the Direction *a r*, *b r*, (inſtead of *a o*, *b o*, as before) as if they came from the Point *C* inſtead of C. All which is plain from the Nature of a concave Lens above deſcribed.

25. Hence it follows, that ſince the Rays are made to fall with greater Divergence upon the Eye, they will require

ſion is not diſtinct, unleſs by Rays which are parallel, or nearly ſo; for thoſe only will

require a greater focal Diſtance to be united in the Axis, and conſequently the Focus may be made to fall very nicely on the Retina, by uſing a Lens E F of a proper Degree of Concavity; and therefore diſtinct Viſion will be effected in the ſame Manner as in an Eye of a juſt Conformation, by painting the Image on the Retina.

26. Since the Point *C* is nearer to the Eye than the Point C, the *apparent* Place of Objects ſeen through a concave Lens is nearer than the *true* Place; or the Object will appear at *O B*, inſtead of O B. And alſo ſince converging Rays O *a*, B *b*, proceed leſs converging after Refraction than before, the Object appears under a leſs Angle, and therefore the apparent Magnitude of Objects ſeen by a concave Lens is leſs than the true.

27. The Object is leſs luminous or bright ſeen thro' ſuch a Lens than without it; becauſe the Rays being rendered more divergent, a leſs Quantity enters the Pupil of the Eye than otherwiſe would do. But the Picture is always more or leſs bright or enlightened, according as it is made by a greater or leſs Quantity of Rays.

28. Laſtly, it appears from what has been ſaid, that when a concave Lens E F cannot be applied, we may ſtill effect diſtinct Viſion by leſſening the Diſtance between the Object and the Eye; for it is plain, if O B be ſituated at *O B*, the Image at I M will recede to *i m* upon the Retina, and be diſtinct in the ſame Manner as when made ſo by the Lens E F. Plate XLIV. Fig. 5.

29. On the other hand, when the *Cornea* or Cryſtalline is too flat, (as often happens by Ag.) an Object O B, placed at the ſame Diſtance from the Eye P C as before, will have the Rays C *o*, C *o* after Refraction in the Eye proceed to a Focus beyond the Bottom of the Eye, in which if a Hole were made (in an Eye taken out of the Head) the Rays would actually go on, and form the Image *i m*; which Image muſt therefore be very confuſed and indiſtinct on the Retina.

will have their Focus at the Bottom of the Eye: Now Rays proceeding from any Point more

30. To remedy this Defect, a convex Lens G H is applied, which cauſes the diverging Rays C *a*, C *b*, to fall leſs diverging upon the Eye, or as if they came from a Point more remote, as *C*; by which means the focal Diſtance is ſhortened, and the Image duly formed on the Retina at I M, by which diſtinct Viſion is produced.

31. Hence the apparent Place of the Object is at *C*, more diſtant than the true Place at C; and its apparent Magnitude *O B* is greater than the true, becauſe the converging Rays O *a*, B *b*, are by this Lens after Refraction made to unite ſooner than before, and ſo to contain an Angle O P *B* greater than the true O P B. The Object appears through a convex Lens brighter than without, becauſe by this means a greater Quantity of Rays enter the Pupil; for the Rays *a o*, *b o*, are by the Lens made to enter in the Directions *a r*, *b r*, which are nearer together, and leave Room for more to enter the Pupil all around between *o* and *r*.

Plate XLIV. Fig. 6.

32. As the Image of the Object painted on the Retina is greater or leſs, ſo will the apparent Magnitude of the Object be likewiſe; or, in other Words, the Angle I P M ſubtended by the Image is always equal to the Angle O P B ſubtended by the Object at the Eye, and therefore the Image I M will be always proportional to the Object O B. Hence it follows, that the Angle O P B under which an Object appears is the Meaſure of its apparent Magnitude.

33. Therefore Objects of different Magnitudes, as O B, A C, D E, which ſubtend the ſame Angle at the Eye, have the ſame apparent Magnitude, or form an equal Image in the Bottom of the Eye. Hence it is that Objects at a great Diſtance have their Magnitude diminiſhed proportionally: Thus the Object D E removed to *D E* appears under a leſs Angle *D P E*, and makes a leſs Image on the Retina, as is ſhewn by the dotted Lines.

34. The

more than 6 Inches diſtant from the Eye, will, when they enter the Pupil, be very nearly

34. The Angles of apparent Magnitude O A B, O C B, when very ſmall, are as their Sines, and therefore as the Sides O C and O A, or B C and B A; that is, the apparent Magnitude of the Object O B, at the Diſtance B C and B A, is inverſely as thoſe Diſtances; or its Magnitude at C is to that at A as A B to C B.

35. The more directly any Object is ſituated before the Eye, the more diſtinctly it will appear; becauſe thoſe Rays only which fall upon the Eye near its Axis can be convened to a Point in the Bottom of the Eye on the Retina, and therefore that Part of the Image only which is formed by the direct Pencil of Rays can be clear and diſtinct; and we are ſaid to *ſee* an Object by ſuch a Pencil of Rays, but only to *look at it* by the others which are oblique. Plate XLIV. Fig. 8.

36. Suppoſe A, B, C, repreſent three Pieces of Paper ſtuck up againſt the Wainſcot of a Room at the Height of the Eye; if then a Perſon places himſelf ſo before them, and ſhutting his Right Eye views them with his Left, it is very remarkable that the Paper B, whoſe Pencil of Rays fall upon the Inſertion D of the Optic Nerve D E, will immediately vaniſh or diſappear, while the two extreme Papers C and A are viſible; and by altering the Poſition of the Eye, and its Diſtance, any of the Papers may be made to vaniſh, by cauſing the Pencil of Rays to fall on the Point D.

37. Why the Rays of Light ſhould not excite the Senſation of Viſion in that Point D where the Fibres of the Nerves begin to ſeparate and expand every way to form the Retina, is not known. But 'tis highly worth our Notice, that the Nerve D E is for that Reaſon placed *on one Side of the Eye*, where only the oblique Rays come, the Loſs of which is not conſiderable, and no way affects or hinders the Perfection of Sight. Whereas had it entered in the Middle of the Bottom of the Eye, it had render'd uſeleſs all the direct Rays,

nearly co-incident with parallel Rays; and therefore to a ſound Eye diſtinct Viſion cannot

by which the moſt perfect and diſtinct Viſion is effected; and we could have had only a confuſed and imperfect Perception of Objects by oblique collateral Rays. How glaring an Inſtance is this of Contrivance and Deſign in the Conſtruction of this admirable Organ!

38. I ſhall conclude this Head with obſerving, that the Nature of a *Reading-Glaſs* is the ſame with that of common *Spectacles*; only in the latter Caſe we uſe a Lens to each Eye, but in the former ones Lens is made large enough for both. Alſo in the Uſe of them we have different Ends to anſwer; for by the Spectacles we only propoſe to render Objects diſtinct at a given Diſtance, but the Reading Glaſs is applied to magnify the Object, or to render the reading of a ſmall Print very eaſy, which otherwiſe would be apt to ſtrain the Eye too much. Therefore the Size of a Lens for Spectacles is not required larger than the Eye; but that of a Reading-Glaſs ought to be big enough to take in as large a Part of the Object, at leaſt, as is equal to the Diſtance between both the Eyes. I ſhall treat of the Viſual Glaſſes in the Appendix.

Plate XLIV. Fig. 9.

39. In the Reading-Glaſs E C D the Object or Print A B is always nearer to the Glaſs than its Focus F; becauſe in this Caſe it is neceſſary the Image or magnified Print G H ſhould be erect, and on the ſame Side of the Glaſs with the Object; that is, the Diſtance d is negative in the Equation $\frac{dr}{d-r}=f$. Hence the Pencil of Rays A E D proceeding from any Point A, will after Refraction through the Lens be divergent, but leſs ſo than before, and therefore will ſeem to come from a Point G. Thus alſo the Point B will be referr'd to H, and the Print at H will be magnified in Proportion of G C to A C. All which is evident from the latter Part of the laſt *Annotation*.

Vol. III. *Plate* XLV. *P.* 39.

Fig. 1. *p.* 42.

Fig. 2. *p.* 42.

Fig. 3. *p.* 43.

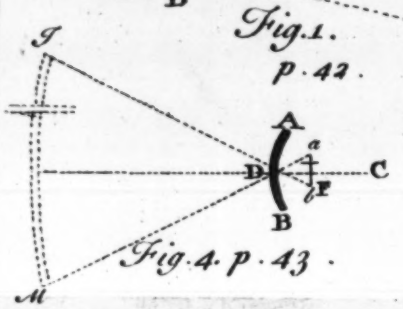


Fig. 4. *p.* 43.

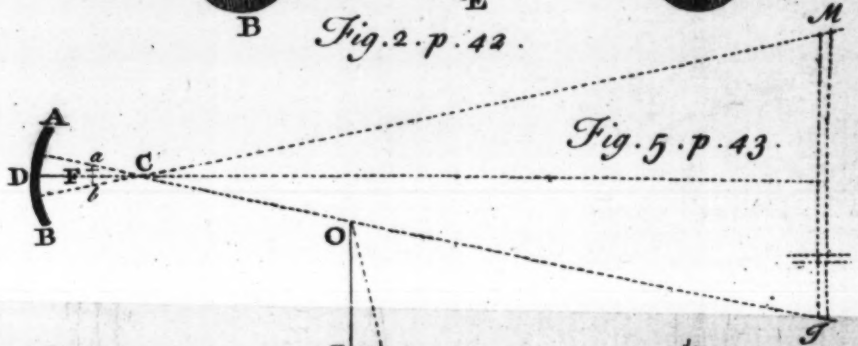


Fig. 5. *p.* 43.

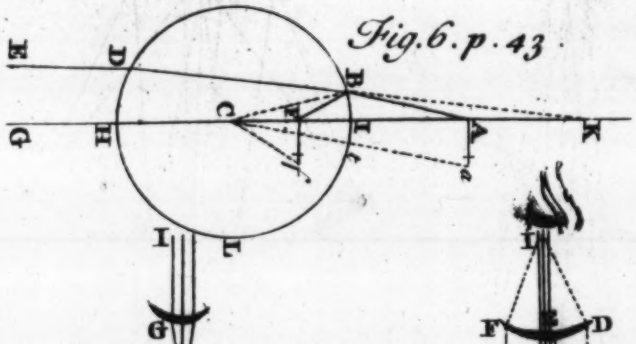
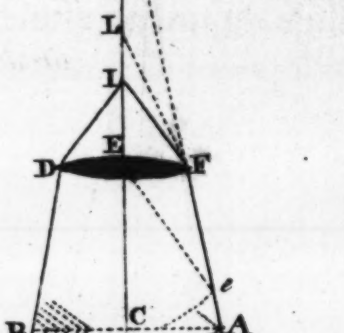
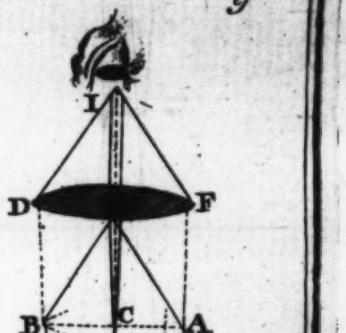


Fig. 6. *p.* 43.





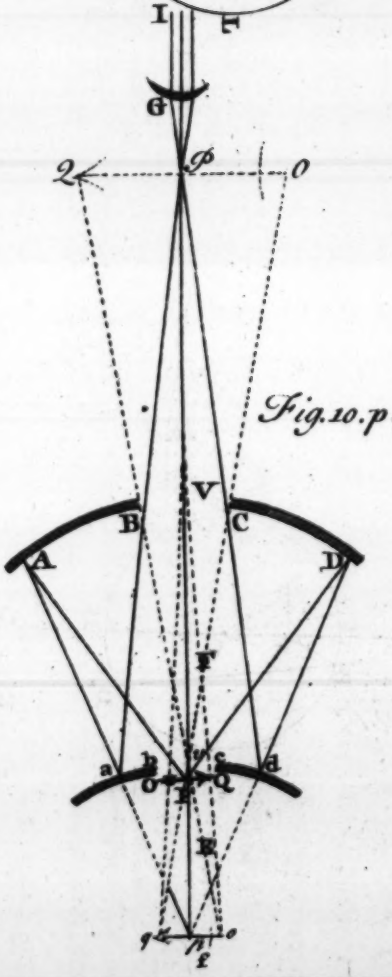


Fig. 10. p. 50.

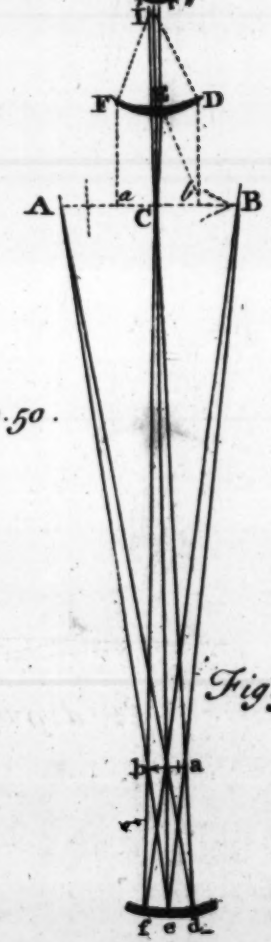


Fig. 9. p. 49.

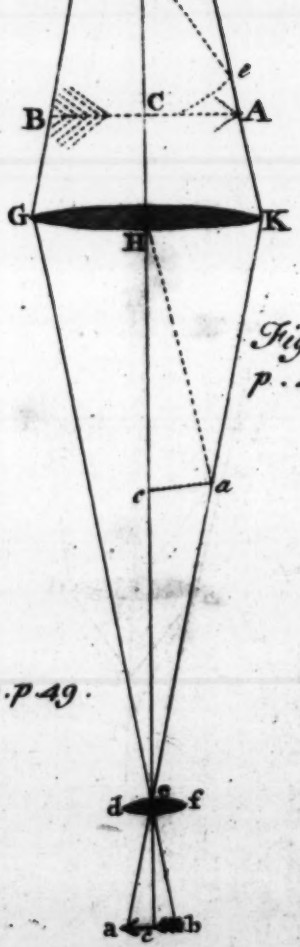


Fig. 8.
p. 46.

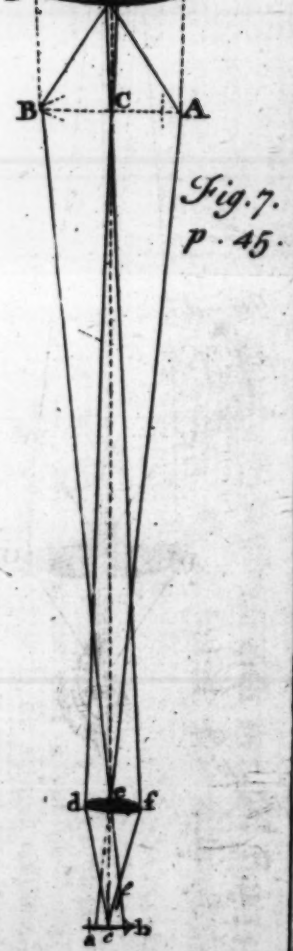


Fig. 7.
p. 45.

cannot be effected at leſs than 6 or 8 Inches Diſtance, as is evident to any who tries the Experiment.

SINCE then there is a certain and determinate Degree of Convexity in the *Cornea* and *Cryſtalline Humour*, for forming the Images of Objects on the *Retina*; if it happens that the Convexity of thoſe Parts ſhould be more or leſs than juſt, the Focus of Rays will fall ſhort of, or beyond the *Retina*, and in either Caſe will cauſe indiſtinct Viſion. The firſt is the Caſe of ſhort-ſighted or *purblind* People, the latter of the *Aged*.

A *purblind Perſon*, having the Convexity of the Eye and Cryſtalline Humour too great, will have the Rays united in a Point before they reach the Bottom of the Eye, and conſequently the Images of Objects will be formed, not upon the *Retina*, (as they ſhould be) but above it in the Glaſſy Humour, and therefore will appear indiſtinct or confuſed.

THIS Defect of the Eye is remedied two Ways, *viz.* (1.) By diminiſhing the Diſtance between the Object and the Eye; for by leſſening the Diſtance of the Object, the Diſtance of the Focus and Image will be increaſed, till it falls on the *Retina*, and

cannot be effected at leſs than 6 or 8 Inches Diſtance, as is evident to any who tries the Experiment.

SINCE then there is a certain and determinate Degree of Convexity in the *Cornea* and *Cryſtalline Humour*, for forming the Images of Objects on the *Retina*; if it happens that the Convexity of thoſe Parts ſhould be more or leſs than juſt, the Focus of Rays will fall ſhort of, or beyond the *Retina*, and in either Caſe will cauſe indiſtinct Viſion. The firſt is the Caſe of ſhort-ſighted or *purblind* People, the latter of the *Aged*.

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THIS Defect of the Eye is remedied two Ways, *viz.* (1.) By diminiſhing the Diſtance between the Object and the Eye; for by leſſening the Diſtance of the Object, the Diſtance of the Focus and Image will be increaſed, till it falls on the *Retina*, and

appears diſtinct. (2.) By applying a concave Glaſs to the Eye; for ſuch a Glaſs makes the Rays paſs more diverging to the Eye, in which Caſe the Diſtance of the Focus will be alſo enlarged, and thrown upon the *Retina*, where diſtinct Viſion will enſue.

HENCE the Uſe of *Concave Spectacles:* And the *Myops* or purblind Perſon, who uſes them, has the three following peculiarities, *viz.* (1.) To him Objects appear nearer than they really are, or do appear to a ſound Eye. (2.) The Objects appear leſs bright, or more obſcure to them than to other People, becauſe a leſs Quantity of Rays of Light enter the Pupil. (3.) Their Eyes grow better with Age; for whereas the Fault is too great a Convexity of the Eye, the *Aqueous Humour*, and alſo the *Cryſtalline*, waſting with Age will grow flatter, and therefore more fit to view diſtant Objects.

THE other Defect of the Eyes, ariſes from a quite contrary Cauſe, *viz.* the *Cornea* and *Cryſtalline Humour* being too flat, as is generally the Caſe of an old Eye. This Defect is remedied by *Convex Lenſes*, ſuch as are the common *Spectacles*, and *Reading-Glaſſes*. For ſince the Rays, in theſe Eyes, go

go beyond the Bottom of the Eye, before they come to a Focus, or form the Image; a convex Glaſs will make the Rays fall more converging to the Pupil, and on the Humours, by which means the focal Diſtance will be ſhorten'd, and adjuſted to the *Retina*; where diſtinct Viſion of Objects will then be effected.

BY convex Spectacles Objects appear *more bright*, becauſe they collect a greater Quantity of Rays on the Pupil. And they appear at a greater Diſtance than they are; for the nearer the Rays approach to parallel ones, the more diſtant the Point will be to which they tend.

I HAVE already obſerved, that if the Object be placed nigher to the convex Glaſs than its Focus, it will appear erect and magnified; which makes them of ſuch general Uſe as *Reading-Glaſſes*.

IF an Object be placed in the Focus of a convex Lens, the Rays which proceed from it, after they have paſs'd through the Glaſs, will proceed parallel; and therefore an Eye placed any where in the Axis will have the moſt diſtinct View of the Object poſſible; and if it be a Lens of a ſmall focal Diſtance, then will the Object appear as much larger as it is nearer, than when you

you view it with the naked Eye. And hence their Uſe as *Single Microſcopes:* To give an Inſtance of which, ſuppoſe the focal Diſtance of a Lens were one Tenth of an Inch, then will the Diameter or Length of an Object appear 60 times larger than to the naked Eye at 6 Inches Diſtance: Alſo the Superficies of an Object will be 3600 times larger; and the whole Magnitude or Bulk will be 216000 times larger than to the naked Eye it will appear at the above-ſaid Diſtance (CXXVII).

COMPOUND

(CXXVII) 1. I ſhall here give a ſuccinct Account of every Sort of Microſcope, with reſpect to their Nature and Theory. MICROSCOPES are diſtinguiſhable into two Kinds, *viz. Dioptric* by Refraction, and *Catoptric* by Reflection; and each of theſe is either *Single*, as conſiſting of one Glaſs only, or *Compounded* of two or more.

Plate XLV. Fig. 1.

2. A SINGLE MICROSCOPE, of the Dioptric or Refracting Sort, is either a *Lens* or a *Spherule*. Thus if any Object *a b* be placed in the Focus *c* of a ſmall Lens A C B, the Rays proceeding from thence will after Refraction go parallel to the Eye at I, and produce diſtinct Viſion; and the Object will be magnified in the Proportion of ſix Inches to the focal Diſtance C *c*, according to the Example above.

Fig. 2.

3. Again; if an Object *a b* be applied to the Focus *c* of a Spherule A B, it will produce diſtinct Viſion thereof by means of parallel Rays (by *Annotat.* CXXVI. *Art.* 15.) and it will appear under an Angle equal to DCE, and be magnifi d in Proportion of 6 Inches to the focal Diſtance C *c* from the Centre. And here it is remarkable, that if the focal Diſtance of the Lens and Spherule be the ſame, the Object will be three times farther

diſtant

A
Pock
B
X
C
G
M
H
I
F
P

The

OCKET - MICROSCOPE

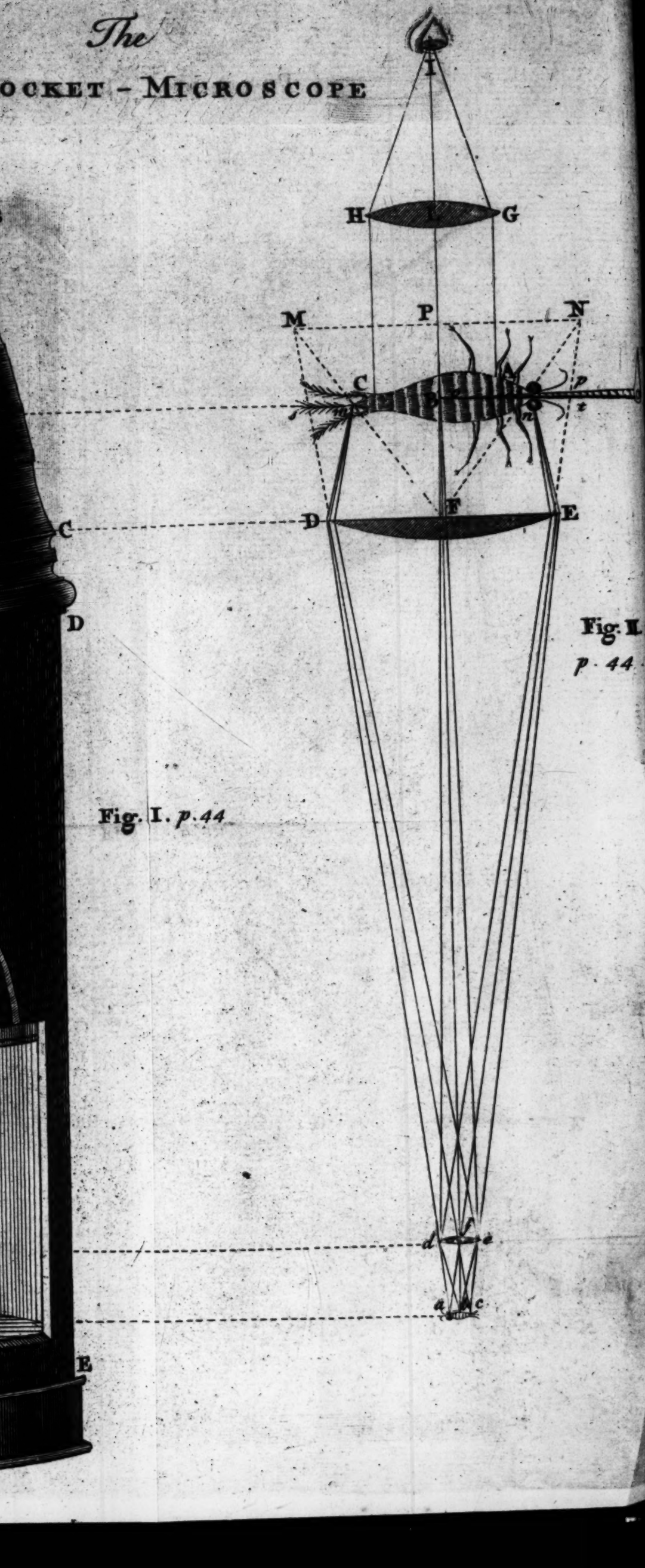


Fig. I. *p.44*

Fig. II.
p. 44

COMPOUND Microſcopes, eſpecially the common Sort, are conſtructed with three Glaſſes,

diſtant from the Lens than from the Spherule, becauſe C D the Semidiameter of the Sphere is $\frac{3}{7}$ of C *c*, the Diſtance of the Lens A B; conſequently an Object is viewed by a Lens to a much greater Advantage than by a Sphere, in regard to the Light, *&c.* Plate XLV. Fig. 3.

4. A Single Microſcope of the Catoptric Kind is a ſmall concave Mirrour, as A D B, having the Object *a b* placed before it, nearer to the Vertex than its Focus F. In that Caſe the Image *I M* will be formed behind the Speculum, very large, erect, and diſtinct, as has been already ſhewn. Such a Speculum is of admirable Uſe to view the Eye; for being turned to the Light, the *Uvea* or *Iris*, the *Pupil*, the *Cornea*, and all the viſible Part of the *Tunica Albuginea*, with the fine Ramifications of the Blood-Veſſels, and Part of the *Glandula Lachrymalis*, are all by this means greatly magnified, and rendered curious Subjects of our Sight. Fig. 4.

5. Alſo if the Object *a b* be placed any where between the Centre C and Focus F of the ſaid ſmall Speculum A B, then will its Image *I M* be formed at a great Diſtance from the Glaſs, and may be made to bear any aſſign'd Proportion to the Object by placing the Object nearer to or farther from the Focus F: But for common Objects the Room ought to be dark, or the Object extremely lucid, as a Candle, *&c.* But more of this when I come to ſpeak of the *Solar Microſcope*. Fig. 5.

6. The next Sort of Single Microſcope is a Catadioptric one, which performs its Effect by Reflection and Refraction; the Theory of which being curious, I ſhall give the Reader as follows. D B L H is a Globule of Water; and it was ſhewn that an Object A *a*, placed in its Focus A, would be ſeen diſtinct and magnified by refracted Rays A B D E (See *Art.* 3.). Now 'tis evident we may conſider the Ray B D either as the refracted Ray of A B, or the reflected Ray of F B, the Angle C B F being equal to the Angle C B D; and Fig. 6.

ſince

Plate XLVI. Fig. 1, 2.

Glaſſes, *viz.* the Object-Lens *de*, and two Eye-Glaſſes D E and G H. The Object *a b c*

ſince in each Caſe the Ray B D is at D refracted into D E parallel to the Axis G K, it follows, that diſtinct Viſion will be produced of an Object F *f* placed in the Focus by Reflection F within the Drop, as the Object A *a* in its Focus A by Refraction without it.

7. In order to determine the focal Diſtance I F by Reflection from the Concave B I *i*, for converging Rays D *b*, we have H K = 4 H C, or 4 I C, (by *Annotat.* CXXV.) whence I K = 2 I C, that is $d = 2r$, in the Theorem $\frac{dr}{2d-r} = f$ (in the ſame *Annotation.*) Alſo becauſe the reflecting Surface is here concave, and the Rays converging, the Theorem will become $\frac{dr}{-2d-r}$ $= f = \frac{2rr}{-5r} = \frac{2}{5}r =$ I F; whence C F = $\frac{3}{5}r$. Alſo it has been ſhewn that A I = I C, or C A = $2r$; and therefore C F : C A :: $\frac{3}{5}$: 2 :: 3 : 10 :: 1 : $3\frac{1}{3}$.

8. And ſince the ſame Object will appear as much larger at F than at A, as the Angle F C *f* is greater than A C *a*, or the Diſtance C A greater than C F, it follows that an Object in a Globule of Water ſeen by Reflection is magnified $3\frac{1}{3}$ times more than it would be in the Focus A by Refraction. Suppoſe then C A = $\frac{1}{5}$ of an Inch, then will C F = $\frac{3}{50}$ of an Inch; and therefore, ſince 6 : $\frac{3}{50}$ :: 100 : 1, it appears that the Diameter of an Object at the Focus F is ſeen 100 times larger than at the Diſtance of 6 Inches from the Eye.

9. In a Glaſs Globule, HK = $3r$, IK = 1, $5r = d$; and the Theorem $\frac{dr}{-2d-r} = \frac{1,5rr}{-4r} = \frac{3}{8}r =$ I F; whence C F = $\frac{5}{8}r$. And becauſe I A = $\frac{1}{2}r$, we have C A = $\frac{3}{2}r$; conſequently, C A : C F :: $\frac{3}{2}$: $\frac{5}{8}$ :: 2 $\frac{1}{5}$: 1; that is, an Object is magnified 2 $\frac{1}{5}$ times more at the Focus F within, than at the Focus A without a Glaſs Globe:

a b c being placed at a little more than the Focal Diſtance from the Lens *d e* will have its

Globe: And hence it appears, that equal Globes of Glaſs and Water magnify by Reflection in Proportion of $2\frac{1}{3}$ to $3\frac{1}{3}$. Alſo becauſe C F $= \frac{1}{3}$ in Water, and C A $= \frac{1}{4}$ when the ſame Globe is Glaſs, it appears that Objects are magnified in the Water Globule more than when ſeen through the Glaſs Globule, in the Proportion of $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 1.

10. A DOUBLE MICROSCOPE is compoſed of two convex Lenſes, *viz.* an *Object* and an *Ocular* Lens. The Object Lens is d f, placed a little farther diſtant from the Object a b, than its focal Diſtance e *f*; becauſe then its Image A B will be form'd at the required Diſtance e C; and as e *c* : e C :: a b : A B. If this Image A B be view'd by a Lens D F placed at its focal Diſtance from it, it will appear diſtinct, becauſe the Rays will thence go parallel to the Eye at I. Plate XLV. Fig. 7.

11. Now the Object a b and the Image A B appear under equal Angles from the Vertex e of the Lens d f; that is, the Angle a e b $=$ A e B. But the Angle under which the Image is ſeen from the Vertex E of the Eye-Glaſs D E is B E A $=$ D I F; therefore the Image view'd by the Eye-Glaſs is to the Object view'd by the Object Lens, as the Angle B E A to the Angle B e A, or as C e to C E nearly. Suppoſe C E $=$ 1 Inch, and C e $=$ 4 Inches, then will the Object be magnified 4 times in Diameter by the means of the Eye-Glaſs D F; but it is magnified by the Lens d f in Proportion of 6 Inches to e *c*, that is, if e *c* $=$ 1 Inch, ſix times. Wherefore by both the Glaſſes the Diameter is magnified $4 \times 6 = 24$ times.

12. But in this Caſe of a ſingle Eye-Glaſs, the *viſible Area* (call'd the *Field of View*) though larger than in the Lens d e alone, yet is not ſo large as it may be render'd by the Addition of a ſecond Eye-Glaſs, as G K; for by the Lens D F alone the viſible Area is equal to the Aperture of the ſaid Lens, becauſe no more of an Object or its Image can be ſeen than what is

its Image form'd at a greater Diſtance on the other Side, and proportionably large, as

is contain'd between the Rays D d and F f parallel to the Axis; that is, the viſible Part of the Image is $df = DF$, and is ſeen under the Angle D L F (L being the Focus of the Lens D F, or L E = C E) and this is call'd the *Optic Angle*, or Angle of viſible Magnitude.

Plate XLV. Fig. 8.

13. But this Angle is greatly increaſed by the Addition of the Glaſs G K; for let a K and b G be the Axes of two Pencils of Rays which come from the extreme Parts of the Object a and b, and falling diverging upon the Lens G K are refracted by it towards the Point O in the Axis of the Glaſs produced. But in their Paſſage they are intercepted by the Lens D F, which refracts them to a Point I nearer the Lens than the Focus L; and therefore the Angle D I F is greater than the Angle D L F, and conſequently a larger Field of View is by this Means obtain'd.

14. To find in what Proportion the Angle D I F is greater than D L F, we muſt conſider e as a Radiant Point, whence the Pencil of Rays G e K diverges to the Lens G K; then if H e = d, H a = r Radius of the double and equally convex Lens G K, we have $\frac{dr}{d-r} = y = HO$ the Focus after Refraction; and if H E = p, then $y - p = EO = d$ = Diſtance for converging Rays K F and G D. And let r = Radius of the double and equally convex Lens D F; then $\frac{dr}{d+r} = f = EI = \frac{yr-pr}{y-p \times r}$. Wherefore LE : IE :: r : $\frac{yr-pr}{y-p+r}$ :: 1 : $\frac{y-p}{y-p+r} = \frac{\frac{dr}{d-r} - p}{\frac{dr}{d-r} - p + r}$. Therefore when the ſeveral Quantities $d, r, p,$ r, are given, the

as at MN; which large Image is contracted into one ABC ſomewhat leſs, by the lower

Ratio of the Angle DLF to that of the amplified Angle DIF is given alſo.

15. For Example; let He = d = 5 Inches, Hc = r = 3,5, p = HE = 2, and re = EC = LE = 1,5; then y = 11,33; therefore $\frac{y-p}{y-p+r} = \frac{9,33}{10,83} = 0,86 = IE$. Therefore the Angle DLF : DIF :: IE : LE :: 0,86 : 1,5. Therefore the viſible Area by the ſingle Eye-Glaſs DF will be to the amplified Area by both the Lenſes GK and DF, as the Square of 0,86 to the Square of 1,5; that is, as 0,7396 to 2,25, or as 7396 to 22500; which Augmentation in the Ratio of 3 to 1 nearly is very conſiderable, and affords great Advantage and Pleaſure in viewing Objects.

16. The magnifying Power of a Compound Microſcope is thus computed: The Angle under which the Object ab appears at the Diſtance of 6 Inches, is to that under which it appears when ſeen through the Lens df, as ec to 6; wherefore the firſt Part of the compound Ratio of the magnifying Power will be $\frac{6}{ec}$.

17. Let Hc be the focal Diſtance of the Lens GK, with the Radius Hc deſcribe the Arch ca, and draw aH; this will be the Axis of all the Rays which go from the Point a to the Lens GK; conſequently, the Ray aK will after Refraction be parallel to the Axis, *i. e.* the Ray KO is parallel to aH; therefore the Image of the Object being in the Focus c of the Lens GK, will be ſeen under the Angle KOH, which is equal to the Angle aHc; but it is ſeen from the Lens df under the Angle aec. But the Angle aHc : aec :: ec : cH. Wherefore the ſecond Part of the Ratio for magnifying is that of ec to cH, or $\frac{ec}{cH}$.

18. Laſtly; let C be the Focus of the Lens DF, and with the Radius EC deſcribe the Arch Ce; then will

lower Eye-Glaſs D E; and this Image is viewed by the Eye through the upper Eye-Glaſs

will *e* E be the Axis of the Pencil of Rays proceeding from the Point *e* to the Lens D F, of which *e* F being one, it will be refracted into F I parallel to *e* E; and ſo the Angle F I E = C E *e*. But F I E is the Angle under which the Image is viewed through the Lens D F, which is to the Angle C O A as C O to C E. Therefore the third and laſt Part of the Ratio for magnifying is $\frac{CO}{CE}$.

19. If now we compound the ſeveral Parts of the Ratio now found into one, it will make the Ratio of $\frac{CO}{CE} \times \frac{ec}{cH} \times \frac{6}{ec}$ to 1. For Example, let e c = $\frac{1}{2}$ an Inch, c H = $3\frac{1}{2}$, e c = 2, C E = $1\frac{1}{2}$; then H E being 2, and H O = 11,66, we have C O = 10,66; whence the above Ratio in Numbers will be $\frac{10,66}{1,5} \times \frac{2}{3,5} \times \frac{6}{0,5} = 40,87$. Therefore the Diameter of any Object is magnified near 41 times by ſuch a Compound Microſcope.

20. If this Calculation be enquired into, we ſhall find that the Glaſs G K diminiſhes the magnifying Power, which is greater by the Eye-Glaſs D F alone, and more diſtinct. Thus in Fig. II. of the large Plate XLVI. if the lower Glaſs D E were taken away, the Rays would go on and be united in a Focus at the Points M, P, N, and there form an Image of the Length M N; but by replacing the Glaſs D E we ſhall have the large Image M N contracted into a leſſer *m n*. Now this larger Image M N may be conſidered as formed by the Lens D E at a negative Focus from an Object *m n*, whoſe Diſtance F B is leſs than the focal Diſtance of the ſaid Lens: All which is eaſy to underſtand from the foregoing Theory of *Dioptrics*.

Glaſs G H; where it alſo diſtinctly views the MICROMETER *o p q*, paſſing over a minute

21. Now $a c : MN :: b f : f P$; and drawing M F and N F, we have $MN : m n :: FP : FB$, becauſe the Object and its Image do in every Caſe ſubtend the ſame Angle from the Vertex of the Lens, as was ſhewn before. Since F P is given, ſo alſo is F B, from the common Theorem $\frac{dr}{d-r} = f$, for a double and equally convex Lens; or $\frac{2dr}{d-2r} = f$, for a plano-convex one. For ſince the Focus f is negative, or $\frac{dr}{d-r} = -f = FP$, therefore $dr = -df + rf$, and ſo $dr + df = rf$; therefore $\frac{rf}{r+f} = d = FB$; and $\frac{2fr}{2r+f} = d$, in a Plano Convex.

22. It is evident from the Scheme, that no more of the large Image MN, or of the contracted one *m n* can be viewed through the Eye-Glaſs H G, than what is contained between the perpendicular Lines H C and G A; and that therefore a much greater Part of the Object can be ſeen in the Image *m n*, than in the Image M N, which is wholly owing to its being contracted by the large Lens D E; and this is all the Reaſon of its Uſe.

23. The next Sort of Microſcope I ſhall take notice of is a *Catadioptric* one, *i. e.* ſuch an one as performs its Effects by *Reflection and Refraction jointly*; for it is conſtructed with a ſmall Object Speculum f e d, whoſe Focus is at F; and it has been ſhewn, that if a ſmall Object a b be placed a little farther from the Speculum than the Focus *f*, where will be formed a large Image thereof A B; which Image will be inverted, and in Proportion to the Object as the Diſtance C e to the Diſtance *e* e, as when an Object Lens was uſed. Plate XLV. Fig. 9.

nute Part of the Image in meaſuring it But what is farther neceſſary in the Theory and

24. Part of this Image is viewed by an Eye-Glaſs F D, which is or ought to be a *Meniſcus*, as here repreſented; becauſe the Image being formed by Reflection, it will be more perfect, and admit of a deeper Charge in the Eye-Glaſs D F; and thoſe of the *Meniſcus* Form are beſt for this Purpoſe, becauſe the Errors of the Rays, and conſequently the Confuſion cauſed thereby, in the Refraction made at the convex Surface, are in a great meaſure rectified by the contrary Refraction at the concave Surface, as is eaſy to underſtand from what has been ſaid of refracted Light, *Annot.* CXVII.

Plate XLV. Fig. 10.

25. Another Sort of *Catoptric* or *Reflecting* Microſcope is conſtructed with two Speculums, a b c d and A B C D, with a central Hole in each. The large Speculum is concave, the other convex, and both of equal Sphericity. They have their Focus at one Inch Diſtance, and placed at the Diſtance of 1½ Inch from each other, that ſo an Object O P Q, being placed a little before the ſmall Speculum, might be nearer to the large one than its Centre E.

26. This being the Caſe, the Rays, P A, P D, which flow from the Point P to the Speculum A D, will be reflected towards a Focus *p*, where an Image *o p q* would be formed, if the Rays were not intercepted by the convex Speculum a b; and the Point *p* being nearer than its Focus f, the Rays A a, D d, which tend towards it, will be reflected to a Focus *P*, where the laſt Image *O P Q* will be formed, to be viewed by the Eye-Glaſs G, tranſmitting parallel Rays to the Eye at I.

27. The Power of magnifying in this Microſcope is thus eſtimated. (1.) The Object O P ſeen from the Vertex V of the Speculum A D is to the ſame ſeen at the Diſtance of 6 Inches from the naked Eye as 6 to V P, or as $\frac{6}{VP}$. (2.) The firſt Image *o p q*, (to be conſidered now as a *virtual Object*) ſeen from the Vertex V of

and Structure of these Microscopes may be found in my *Micrographia Nova*, together with

of the Mirrour A D, is to the same seen from the Vertex v of the Mirrour a d as vp to V p, or as $\frac{Vp}{vp}$.

(3.) Lastly, the Image $OP\,Q$, seen from the Vertex v of the Speculum a d, is to the same seen through the Eye-Glass G, as G P to $P\,v$, or as $\frac{P\,v}{GP}$. Where the whole magnifying Power is as $\frac{6}{VP} \times \frac{Vp}{vp} \times \frac{PV}{GP}$ to 1. This Contrivance we owe to Dr. *Smith* of *Cambridge*.

28. But a better Form and easier Method of constructing a Catoptric Microscope, with *two reflecting Mirrours*, is that which follows. A B C D E F is a Case or Tube, in one End of which is placed a concave Speculum G H, with a Hole I K in the Middle; the Centre of this Speculum is at c, and its Focus at O, so that V O = O c. At the open End of the Tube is placed a small convex Speculum d e f, on a Foot e f, by which it is moveable nearer to or farther from the larger Speculum, G H, as Occasion requires. Plate XLVII. Fig. 10.

29. If now an Object a b be posited in the Centre c of the large Speculum, the Image thereof *a b* will be formed in the same Place, as has been shewn already; and this Consideration is all the Reason of this Form of a Microscope; for, if now we look upon the Image *a b* as an Object nearer to the convex Speculum d f than its Focus *f*, 'tis plain a larger Image *A B* will be formed thereby at the Focus *C*; or that Rays *c* G, *c* H, proceeding from any Point c in the Object a b, will be reflected back upon themselves, as being perpendicular to the Speculum; but the refracted Rays meeting with, or impinging on, the convex Surface of the Speculum d f, will (as they tend to a Point *c*, nearer than the Focus *f*) be reflected to a Focus *C*, which is found by the Theorem $\frac{dr}{r+2d} = f$ (*Annot.* CXXV).

with a large Account of all Kinds of *Microſcopic Objects*, and a Deſcription of the *Solar*

30. For in this Caſe $f = e\,c$, and $d = e\,C$; and ſince $dr = rf + 2df$, we have $\frac{rf}{r-2f} = d$. Thus if we put the Radius of the ſmall Speculum $r = 2$ Inches, then $e\,f = 1$, and let $e\,c = f = 0{,}8$; then $\frac{rf}{r-2f} = \frac{1{,}6}{2-1{,}6}$ $= \frac{1{,}6}{0{,}4} = 4$ Inches $= e\,C$; and $a\,b : AB :: 0{,}8 : 4 :: 1 : 5$, or the Image AB will be 5 times longer than the Object $a\,b$. This Image AB is viewed by the *Meniſcus* Eye-Glaſs L M, whence 'tis eaſy to obſerve that this Form of a Microſcope is the ſame with that in *Article* 23, 24. only there is but one Reflection, and here is two; and there a ſmall Concave was uſed, but here a Convex; becauſe by this means the Inſtrument is ſhorter by twice the focal Diſtance $e\,f$ nearly, which is very conſiderable, as being $\frac{1}{3}$ Part of the whole.

31. I ſhall ſhew in the next *Annotation* how both theſe Microſcopes may be had very conveniently in the reflecting Teleſcope, and conclude this with an Account of the Nature and Uſe of the Micrometer for meaſuring the ſmalleſt Parts of natural Bodies; and here I ſhall not take Notice of the ſeveral uncertain conjectural Methods deſcribed by others, but only ſuch as I uſe in my own Microſcopes, which is ſtrictly Mechanical, and gives the Meaſurement abſolutely.

Plate XLVI. Fig. 1, 2.

32. The MICROMETER conſiſts of a graduated circular Plate X, of a Screw $q\,o$, and its Index $q\,r$. The Threads of the Screw are ſuch, that 50 make the Length of one Inch exactly. When it is to be uſed, the Point o is ſet to the Side of the Part to be meaſured, and then the Index is turned about with the Finger, till the Eye perceives the Point has juſt paſſed over the Diameter of the Part; then the Number of Turns, and Parts of a Turn, ſhewn by the graduated Circle, will give the Dimenſions

Solar Microſcope. Yet, that the Reader may have an Idea of the *two new Forms* of Microſcopes deſcribed in that Book, I have here annexed the Plates, *viz.* of the POCKET and UNIVERSAL MICROSCOPE reſpectively.

THE TELESCOPE is of two Sorts, *viz.* *Dioptric*, or *Refracting*; or *Cata-Dioptric*, by *Reflection* and *Refraction* conjointly. A *refracting Teleſcope* conſiſts of an Object-Glaſs *x z*, by which the Image *f d* of an Object Plate XLVIII. Fig. 8.

Dimenſions in Parts of an Inch, as I ſhall ſhew by the following Example.

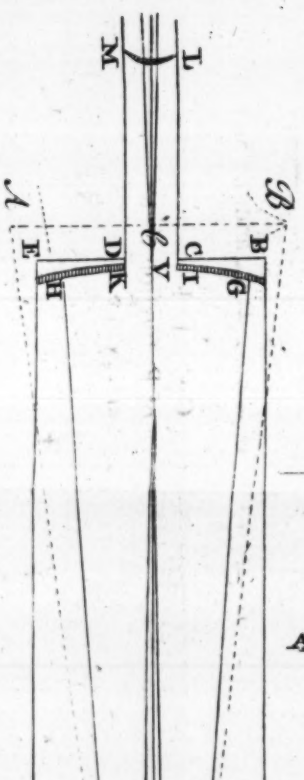
33. Suppoſe it required to meaſure the Diameter of an human Hair, and I obſerve the Index is turned juſt once round while the Point paſſes *o* over it. Then 'tis plain the Diameter of the Hair in the Image is $\frac{1}{50}$ of an Inch. Now if the Microſcope magnifies 6 times, or makes the Image 6 times larger in Diameter than the Object, then is the Diameter of the Hair itſelf but $\frac{1}{6}$ of $\frac{1}{50}$, that is but $\frac{1}{300}$ Part of an Inch.

34. Alſo it is to be obſerved, that as there are ten large Diviſions, and twenty ſmall ones, on the Micrometer Plate, ſo each of thoſe ſmall Diviſions are the $\frac{1}{10}$ of $\frac{1}{500}$, or the $\frac{1}{10000}$ Part of an Inch. Therefore, if in meaſuring any Part of an Object, you obſerve how many of theſe ſmaller Diviſions are paſs'd over by the Index, you will have ſo many 10000th Parts of an Inch for the Meaſure required. All which is ſo plain, that nothing can be ſaid to illuſtrate the Matter.

35. In *Plate* XLVIII. I have given a Print of the Form of my NEW POCKET-MICROSCOPE furniſhed with the MICROMETER above deſcribed. This Microſcope is of the moſt ſimple Structure, moſt eaſy and expeditious for Uſe, and comes at the leaſt Price of any hitherto invented of the compound Sort.

Object O B, at a Diſtance, is formed in the Focus *e* of the ſaid Glaſs, and in an *inverted Poſition*. This Image may be view'd by a ſingle Lens *a b*, placed at its Focal Diſtance, as is uſually done for viewing the heavenly Bodies, becauſe in them we regard not the Poſition: But for viewing Objects near us, whoſe Image we would have erect, we muſt for that Purpoſe add a ſecond Lens *p q*, at double its Focal Diſtance from the other, that the Rays which come from *a b* may croſs each other in the Focus O, in order to erect the Image *g n*, which it will form in its own Focus *m*, becauſe the Rays come parallel from the firſt Lens *a b*. Laſtly, a third Lens *i c* is added, to view that ſecondary Image *g n*. Theſe three Lenſes, or Eye-Glaſſes, are uſually of the ſame Size and Focal Length; and the Power of magnifying is always *as the Focal Length of the Object-Glaſs* e w *divided by the Focal Length of the Eye-Glaſs* l m *or* h e. For inſtance: Suppoſe *e w* = 10 Feet or 120 Inches, and *h e* or *l m* = 3 Inches; then will the Length of the Object appear to the Eye through ſuch a Teleſcope 40 times larger than to the naked Eye; and its Surface will be magnified 1600 times, and

Vol. III. *Plate* XLVII. *P.* 55.



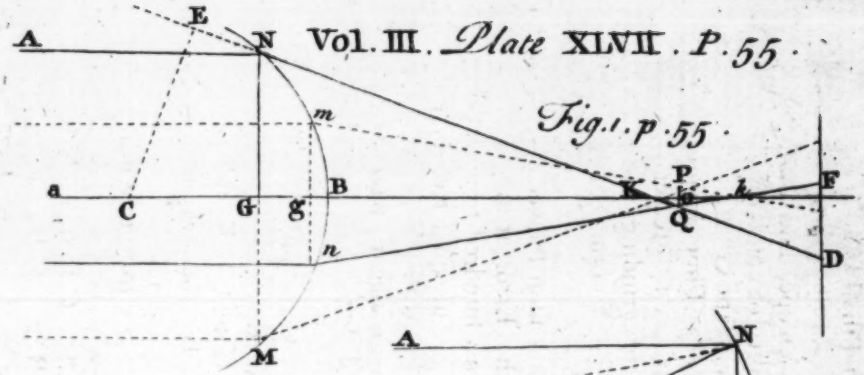


Fig. 1. p. 55.

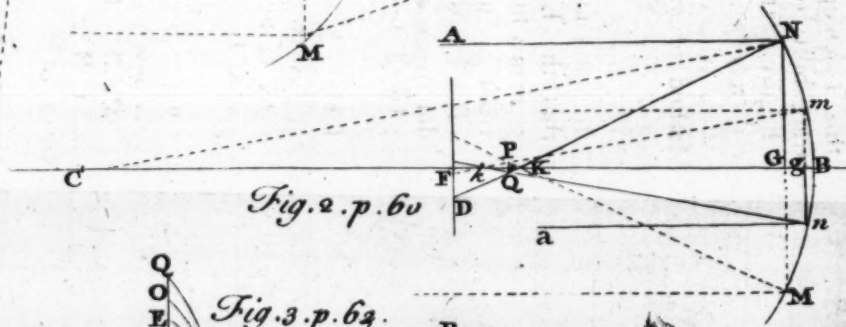


Fig. 2. p. 60

Fig. 3. p. 62.

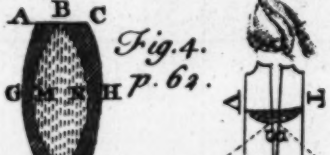


Fig. 4. p. 62.

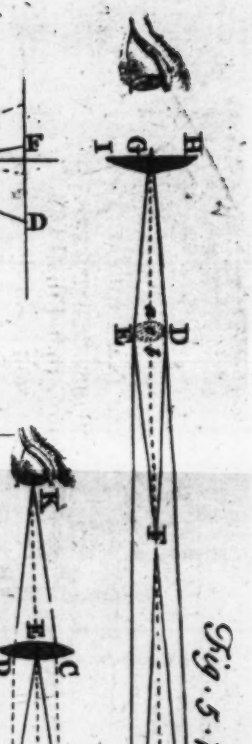


Fig. 5.

Fig. 5. p. 66.

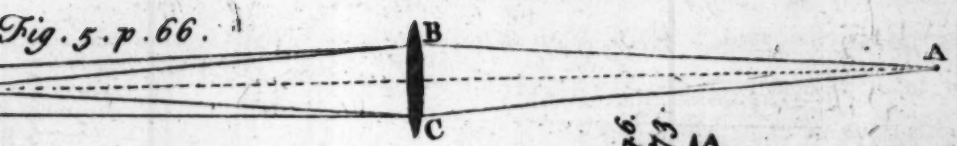


Fig. 6. p. 73.

Fig. 7. p. 74.

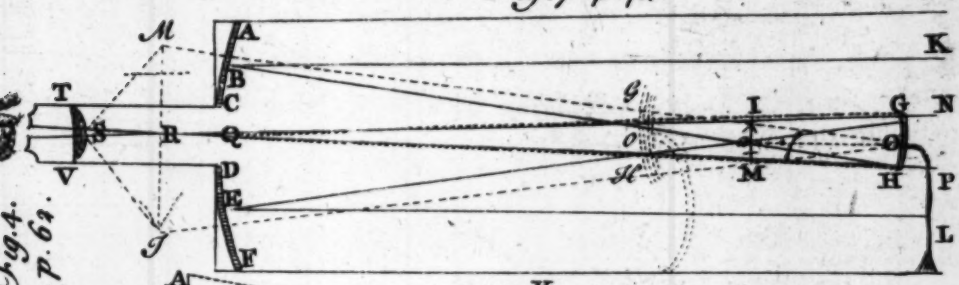


Fig. 4. p. 64.

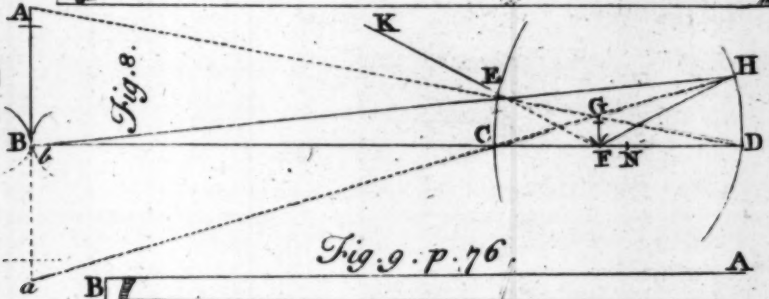
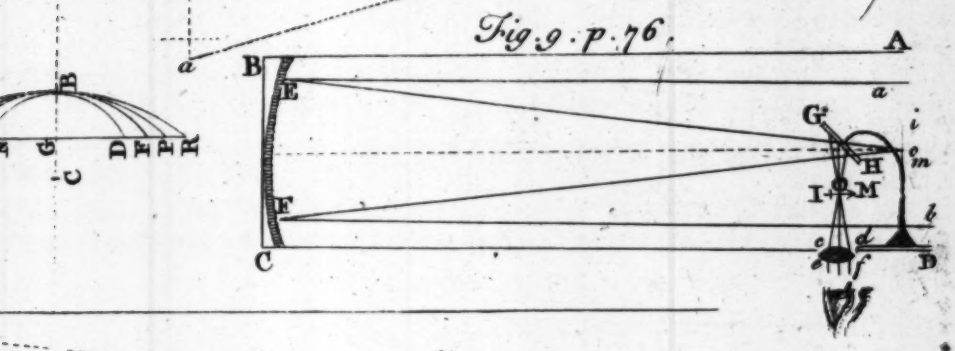


Fig. 8.

Fig. 9. p. 76.



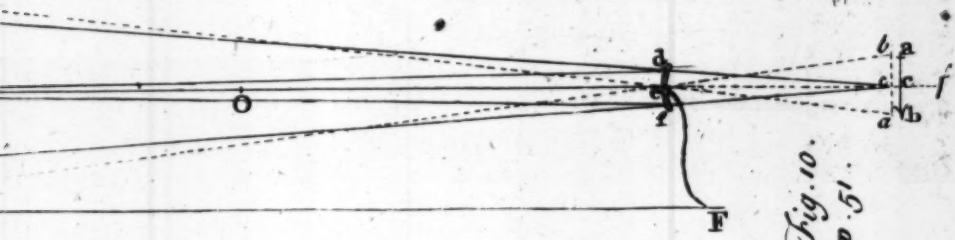


Fig. 10. p. 51.

and its Bulk or Solidity 64000 times.

(CXXVIII) IF

(CXXVIII) 1. The Nature and Structure of a common refracting Teleſcope is above deſcribed, and is ſo evident from the Figure, that I ſhall ſay nothing farther relating to its Compoſition, but ſhall proceed to ſhew the Imperfection of this Teleſcope, and that it ariſes from the different Refrangibility of common Light, and not from the ſpherical Figure of the Glaſs, as the *Opticians* before Sir *Iſaac Newton*'s Time imagined, and therefore propoſed to bring them to greater Perfection by introducing the Method of grinding and poliſhing Glaſſes of the Figure of one or other of the *Conic Sections*.

2. But this great Philoſopher ſoon ſhewed them their Miſtake, by proving that the Error ariſing from the Figure of the Glaſs was many hundred times leſs than that which proceeded from the unequal Refrangibility of the Rays, and was ſo ſmall as to be altogether inconſiderable; and this he did by an elegant Method in his *Lectiones Opticæ*, which I ſhall here tranſlate from that admirable Book.

3. Let N B M be a ſpherical Surface, C the Centre, C B the Semidiameter or Axis parallel to the incident Rays, A N an incident Ray, and N K the ſame refracted, cutting the Axis C B produced in the Point K; and let F be the Solar or principal Focus, where the Rays meet the Axis which are infinitely near to the Axis. The Error K F is now to be determined. Plate XLVII. Fig. 1.

4. Let fall the Perpendiculars C E upon N K, and N G upon C K, and call C B $= a$, G B $= x$, and C K $= z$; and from the Nature of the Circle we have $\overline{NG^2} = 2ax - xx$, to which add $GK^2 = \overline{(z - a + x)^2}$ $z^2 + 2xz - 2az + x^2 - 2ax + a^2$, and the Sum will be $NK^2 = z^2 + 2xz - 2az + aa$.

5. Now ſince N G : C E :: I : R, *viz.* as the Sine of Incidence to the Sine of Refraction; and becauſe of ſimilar Triangles C E K and N G K, it is N G : C E :: N K : C K :: I : R; therefore $I^2 : R^2 :: (NK^2 : CK^2)$ $z^2 + 2xz - 2az + a^2 : z^2$; and $I^2 z^2 = z^2 +$

IF inſtead of a *convex Eye-Glaſs* we ſhould uſe a *concave* one of the ſame Focal Length, it

$2xz - 2az + a^2 \times R^2$, and by Reduction $zz = \frac{2azR^2 - 2xzR^2 - a^2R^2}{R^2 - I^2}$; and (putting $\frac{R^2a - R^2x}{R^2 - I^2} = s$, we have $z^2 = 2zs - \frac{R^2a^2}{R^2 - I^2}$, and $z^2 - 2sz = -\frac{R^2a^2}{R^2 - I^2}$, and compleating the Square, $z^2 - 2sz + ss = ss - \frac{R^2a^2}{R^2 - I^2}$; and extracting the Root, $z = s + \sqrt{ss - \frac{R^2a^2}{R^2 - I^2}}$; whence by Subſtitution we have) $z = \frac{R^2a - R^2x + R\sqrt{I^2a^2 - 2R^2ax + R^2x^2}}{R^2 - I^2}$

6. And, reducing the radical Part to an infinite Series, we have $z = \frac{Ra}{R-I} - \frac{R^2x}{IR-I^2} - \frac{R^3x^2}{2I^3a} - \frac{R^4x^3}{2I^3a^2}$ &c. Now when $x = o$, $z = \frac{Ra}{R-I} = CF$; whence $CF - CK = KF = \frac{R^2x}{IR-I^2} + \frac{R^3x^2}{2I^3a}$, &c. which is the Value of the Error required.

7. Hence when BG or x is exceeding ſmall, $\frac{R^2x}{IR-I^2} = KF$ nearly, becauſe in that Caſe the other Terms, where the aſcending Powers of x are found, become extremely ſmall, and nothing in regard to the firſt Term where x is ſingle.

8. Again; putting $NG = y$, we have $\frac{R^2y^2}{2IRa - 2I^2a} = KF$ nearly; for $NG^2 = BG \times BC + CG = BG \times 2BC$ nearly, (from the *Elements*) that is, $y^2 = 2ax$ nearly, or $\frac{y^2}{2a} = x$. If then for x in the Equation of

it would repreſent the Object erect, equally magnified, and more diſtinct and bright; but

the laſt *Article* we ſubſtitute its Value $\frac{y^2}{2a}$, it gives the Equation above in this.

9. Hence alſo it follows, that the Error K F is always as the *Sagitta* or verſed Sine G B, or the Square of the Semichord N G.

10. If the Ray A N K be given in Poſition, and â n be any other parallel Ray nearer to the Axis, and on the other Side; of which let n *k* be the refracted Part cutting the Axis in *k*, and the refracted Ray N K in Q, and from Q draw Q *o* perpendicular to the Axis: Then will the Line K *o* become greateſt of all, or a *Maximum*, when the Ray â n is about half the Diſtance of the Ray A N from the Axis.

11. For, draw n g perpendicular to the Axis, and put n g $= v$, K *o* $= s$, G K $= f$, and K F $= h$; and ſince, by *Art.* 9, we have N G^2 : n g^2 :: K F : *k* F, or $y^2 : v^2 :: h : \frac{v^2 h}{y^2} =$ *k* F, therefore K F $-$ *k* F $=$ K *k* $= h - \frac{h v^2}{y^2} = \frac{hyy - hvv}{yy}$.

12. Moreover, G K : G N :: K *o* : Q *o*; wherefore Q *o* $= \frac{ys}{f}$. Alſo g n : G K ($=$ g *k* nearly) :: Q *o* : *o k* $= \frac{ys}{v}$; therefore *k o* $+$ K *o* $= \frac{ys}{v} + s = \frac{ys + vs}{v} =$ K *k* $= \frac{hyy - hvv}{yy}$; and dividing by $v + y$, and reducing the Equation, we have $s = \frac{hvy - hvv}{yy}$.

13. Now to determine *s* a *Maximum*, we muſt make its Fluxion $= o$, that is, $\dot{s} = \frac{h\dot{v}y - 2hv\dot{v}}{yy} = o$; whence we get $h\dot{v}y - 2h\dot{v}v = o$, that is, $hy = 2hv$, or

but the Diſadvantage of this Glaſs is, that it admits of but a ſmall *Area*, or *Field of View*,

or $2v = y$, or $2ng = NG$, when s or Ko is greateſt of all.

14. Therefore Ko, when greateſt, is equal to about $\frac{1}{4}$ of KF; for if in the Equation expreſſing the Value of s (in *Article* 12.) you write $2v$ for y, there will ariſe $\frac{1}{4}b = s$.

15. Alſo becauſe $CF - CB = BF = GK$ nearly, therefore $GK = \frac{Ra}{R-I} - a = \frac{Ia}{R-I}$. Whence ſince $GK\left(= \frac{Ia}{R-I}\right) : GN\ (= y) :: Ko\ (= \frac{1}{4}KF = \frac{R^2y^2}{8IRa - 8I^2a}) : Qo = \frac{R^2y^3}{8I^2a^2}$.

16. If the Arch BM be taken equal to the Arch BN, and $Bm = Bn$, and Rays incident on M and m are refracted interſecting each other in the Point P, then 'tis evident $PQ = 2Qo = \frac{R^2y^3}{4I^2a^2}$; and it is alſo plain, that all the Rays which fall on the Curve between N and M are ſo refracted as to paſs through the Space PQ, and that the ſaid circular Space PQ is the leaſt poſſible in which all the Rays can be congregated; and therefore that this Space is the Focus or Place of the Image of an Object, which ſends parallel Rays upon the whole Surface of the Lens NBM.

17. For no Rays can be refracted without this Space, becauſe ſince Qo is in a given Ratio to Ko, it will be at the ſame time a *Maximum* with it; and therefore the Point Q is the moſt remote from the Axis, in which any of thoſe refracted towards F, can poſſibly interſect the external Ray NK. Neither can they be refracted into a leſs Space, becauſe the Rays MK, NK, cut the external Rays nk and mk in the Points P and Q, by which the Space PQ is terminated.

18. If the Radius of the Circle (or Lens) NBM be conſtant, the lateral Error PQ will be as y^3, or as the

View, and therefore not to be uſed when we would ſee much of an Object, or take in

the Cube of the Breadth of the Aperture N M. Alſo, if the Aperture of the Lens remain the ſame, the ſaid Error P Q will be reciprocally as $a\,a$, or as CB^2, and therefore as BF^2, ſince C B and B F are in a given Ratio. But if neither the Magnitude of the Circle nor of the Aperture be conſtant, the Error P Q will be as $\frac{y^3}{a^2}$, or as $\frac{NM^3}{BF^2}$, as is evident from its Value $\frac{R^2 y^3}{4 I^2 a^2}$, wherein the Part $\frac{R^2}{4 I^2}$ is conſtant, and therefore omitted. Thus far Sir *Iſaac*.

19. In all that has been ſaid in the preceding *Articles*, we are to underſtand Sir *Iſaac*'s Deſign is to ſhew what the Quantity of the Error is, and in what Proportion it varies, that ariſes from the circular Figure of the Glaſs only in refracting the ſame Ray as it is nearer to or farther from the Axis. And therefore we are to underſtand that the Rays here meant are homogeneal, or all of the ſame Sort, and which admit of no Error from a different Refrangibility.

20. Hence we are able to compare the Errors ariſing from the different Refrangibility of the Rays, and from the ſpherical Figure of the Glaſs (ſuppoſing it a *Plano-Convex*, as it commonly is) in a Teleſcope of any given Length. For Example: In a refracting Teleſcope of 100 Feet Length, that is, where $BF = 2BC = 2a =$ D = Diameter of the Sphere = 1200 Inches, $y = NG = 2$ Inches, and let I : R :: 20 : 31 out of Glaſs into Air. Then will the Expreſſion for the lateral Error from the Figure of the Glaſs be $\frac{R^2 y^3}{4 I^2 a^2} = \frac{31 \times 31 \times 8}{4 \times 20 \times 20 \times 600 \times 600} = \frac{961}{72000000}$ Parts of an Inch, the Diameter of the circular Space P Q.

21. The Diameter of the little Circle through which the Rays are ſcatter'd by unequal Refrangibility is about the

in a great Scope; but it is uſed to great Advantage in viewing the *Planets* and their *Satellites*,

the 55th Part of the Breadth of the Aperture of the Object-Glaſs (as we have already ſhewn) that is, in the preſent Caſe, a 55th Part of 4 Inches, or $\frac{4}{55}$. Wherefore the Error ariſing from the ſpherical Figure of the Glaſs is to that ariſing from the different Refrangibility of the Rays as $\frac{961}{72000000}$ to $\frac{4}{55}$, that is, as 1 to 5449; and therefore being in compariſon ſo very ſmall, deſerves not to be conſidered in the Theory of Teleſcopes.

Plate XLVII. Fig. 2.

22. Let us now ſee, according to Sir *Iſaac*'s Method, what the Value of his lateral Error P Q is in the Rays reflected from a ſpherical Surface, where every Part is denoted by the ſame Letters as before; only now the refracted Ray N K is the reflected Ray: And here alſo $NG^2 = 2ax - xx$, and $GK^2 = \overline{(a - z - x)^2} = a^2 - 2ax - 2az + x^2 + 2zx + zz$, as before, (*Article* 4.) therefore $NG^2 + GK^2 = NK^2 = a^2 - 2az + 2xz + zz = zz$; becauſe NK = CK, from the Law of *Reflection*. Whence $a^2 = 2az - 2xz$, and therefore $z = \frac{a^2}{2a - 2x} = CK$; but $CF = \frac{1}{2}a$, therefore $CK - CF = FK = \frac{a^2}{2a - 2x} - \frac{1}{2}a = \frac{ax}{a - x \times 2}$.

23. Hence, when x is indefinitely ſmall, $FK = \frac{ax}{2a} = \frac{1}{2}x = \frac{1}{2}GB$ nearly; and becauſe $yy = 2ax$ nearly, (ſee *Article* 8.) therefore $\frac{y^2}{4a} = \frac{1}{2}x = FK$; and hence it appears, that the Error KF is always as x or the verſed Sine GB, or as y^2, or Square of the Sine or Semi-Aperture NG.

24. Again;

Satellites, Saturn's Ring, Jupiter's Belts, &c. This is called the *Galilean Teleſcope*, from *Galileo*,

24. Again; every thing in *Art.* 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14, is the ſame here as there; and ſo $K\,o = \frac{1}{4}\,K\,F = \frac{y^2}{16\,a}$. And becauſe G K is nearly equal $B\,F = \frac{1}{2}\,a$, therefore $G\,K : G\,N :: K\,o : Q\,o$; that is, $\frac{1}{2}\,a : y :: \frac{y^2}{16\,a} : \frac{y^3}{8\,a\,a} = Q\,o$; conſequently, $2\,Q\,o = P\,Q = \frac{y^3}{4\,a\,a}$. *Q. E. I.*

25. Hence if we put $a = B\,C =$ Radius of the reflecting Sphere, N B M, we ſhall have P Q in the refracting Surface or Lens, to P Q in the reflecting Surface or Mirrour, as $\frac{R^2\,y^3}{4\,I^2\,a\,a}$ to $\frac{y^3}{4\,a\,a}$, or (if $a = a$) as $\frac{R^2}{I^2}$ to 1, that is, as 2,4 to 1; ſo that *the Error by Refraction is near twice and a half greater than that by Reflection*, when the Radius of the Sphere is the ſame in both.

26. If the Medium be given, or the Ratio of I to R, and alſo the Aperture $N\,M = 2\,y$; then the Error by Reflection is to that by Refraction as $\frac{1}{a\,a}$ to $\frac{1}{a\,a}$. Hence, ſince if the focal Diſtance of a reflecting Teleſcope and a refracting one be equal, we have $a = 4\,a$, therefore $\frac{1}{a\,a}$ to $\frac{1}{a\,a}$ as $\frac{1}{16}$ to 1, it appears that the Error P Q in the Refractor is to that of the Reflector as 16 to 1.

27. Again; it appears, that in the Reflector, as well as the Refractor, the Error is *(cæteris paribus)* proportional to y^3, or the Cube of the Aperture of the Object-Metal N B M.

28. Laſtly, we obſerve in the refracting Teleſcope, if the Radius C B $= a$, and Semi-Aperture N G $= y$, be given, the Error P Q will be as $\frac{R^2}{I^2}$. Hence, if the

Lens

Galileo, the Inventor, and is the firſt Sort of Teleſcope ever made.

THE

Lens be Glaſs, we have $\frac{R^3}{I^2} = \frac{31 \times 31}{20 \times 20} = 2,4$; and if the Lens be Water, we have $\frac{R^3}{I^2} = \frac{4 \times 4}{3 \times 3} = \frac{16}{9} = 1,777$. Therefore the Error by Refraction in a Glaſs-Lens is to that in a Water-Lens *(cæteris paribus)* as 2,4 to 1,777, or as 4 to 3 nearly.

29. Before Sir *Iſaac Newton*, all Opticians imagined the Indiſtinctneſs or Imperfection of Teleſcopes was owing wholly to the Figure of the Glaſs or Lens; which put them upon introducing the Figures of the *Conic Sections*, becauſe, being acquainted with the Ratios of Incidence and Refraction, they could find by Geometry that an Aberration of Rays from the principal Focus F would be occaſioned by the Curvature of the Glaſs, and that was always leſs of courſe as the Curvature was leſs; and that therefore if N B D, E B F, O B P, and Q B R repreſent the curved Surface of a *Circle*, an Ellipſis, a *Parabola*, and an *Hyperbola*, whoſe common Focus is C, 'tis plain, if a parallel Ray A N be incident on each of theſe Curves in the Points N, *a*, *b*, *c*, the Aberration or Error cauſed in the Ray by Refraction in each will be as the Curvature is leſs, or as the Radius of Curvature in the Points N, *a*, *b*, *c*, increaſes; and it has been ſhewn to be as the Square of that Radius inverſely. (See *Art.* 18 and 26.) Conſequently, ſince the Aperture and principal Focus is the ſame in all thoſe Lenſes, the Errors of the Rays will be leſſened in each of them reſpectively.

Plate XLVII. Fig. 3.

30. But if the Imperfection of the refracting Teleſcope had been owing only to the ſpherical Figure of the Glaſs, Sir *Iſaac Newton* propoſed a Remedy without Recourſe to the *Conic Sections*, which was by compoſing the Object-Glaſs of two Meniſcus Glaſſes, with Water between them. Thus let A D F C repreſent the Object-Glaſs compoſed of two Glaſſes A B E D and B E F C, alike convex on the Outſides A G D and C H F, and

Fig. 4.

THE *Cata-dioptric* or *Reflecting Teleſcope* is the moſt noble and uſeful of all others; the

and alike concave on the Inſides B M E, B N E, with Water in the Cavity B M E N.

31. Now let the Sines of Incidence and Refraction out of Glaſs into Air be as I to R, and out of Water into Air as K to R; then out of Glaſs into Water they will be as I to K, (*Annot.* CXVII.) And let the Diameter of the Sphere to which the convex Sides are ground be D, and the Diameter of the Sphere to which the concave Sides are ground be to D as the Cube Root of $\overline{K - I \times K}$ to the Cube Root of $\overline{K - I \times R}$. Then the Refractions on the concave Sides of the Glaſſes will be very much corrected by the Errors of Refractions on the convex Sides, ſo far as they ariſe from the Sphericalneſs of the Figure.

32. But ſince thoſe compound Lenſes of Glaſs and Water are with Trouble and Difficulty made, Opticians have applied themſelves to invent the beſt Figure of Lenſes for this Purpoſe, that is, ſuch that the Refraction at the ſecond Surface might correct the Errors of Refraction at the firſt Surface (ariſing from the Figure of the Glaſs only) as much as poſſible: And the famous *Hu gens* has given us a Theorem by which he proves the following Particulars.

33. *Firſt*, That when parallel Rays fall upon the plane Side of a plano-convex Lens, the (longitudinal) Aberration of the extreme Ray is $\frac{9}{2}$ of the Thickneſs, and is leſs than the like Aberration cauſed by any Meniſcus-Glaſs whoſe concave Side is expoſed to the incident Rays.

34. *Secondly*, When the ſaid Glaſſes have their convex Sides turned to the incident Rays, the Aberration of the extreme Ray in the Plano-Convex is $\frac{7}{2}$ of its Thickneſs, and is leſs than the like Aberration of any Meniſcus in this Poſition.

35. *Thirdly*, That a double convex Glaſs, whoſe Radius of the firſt Surface, on which the Rays fall, is to that of the Second Surface as 2 to 5, is juſt as good

as

the *Mechaniſm* whereof is as follows: A B E H is the large Tube or Body of the Inſtrument,

as the Plano-Convex in its beſt Poſition, the Error being in both $\frac{7}{8}$ of their common Thickneſs.

36. *Fourthly*, When the Radii of a Double Convex are equal, the Aberration is $\frac{3}{4}$ of the Thickneſs; and therefore ſuch a Lens is not ſo good as a Plano-Convex of the ſame Thickneſs in its beſt Poſition.

37. *Fifthly*, But if the Radius of the firſt Surface be to that of the ſecond as 1 to 6, it is then the beſt Glaſs of all, its Aberration then being the leaſt poſſible, *viz.* $\frac{11}{12}$ of its Thickneſs. But if this beſt Glaſs be turned with its other Side to the Rays, the Aberration will be $\frac{145}{42}$, and therefore becomes much worſe than before.

38. *Sixthly*, When a Plano-Concave has its plane Side turned towards parallel Rays, the Aberration of the extreme Ray is alſo $\frac{3}{4}$ of the Thickneſs; and when inverted it is only $\frac{7}{8}$. In a Double Concave likewiſe, whoſe Radii of the firſt and ſecond Surfaces are as 1 to 6, the Aberration is the leaſt poſſible, *viz.* $\frac{11}{14}$, as above in the like Convex.

39. Hence the Glaſſes of common Spectacles ought to have the Figure of the Convex in *Art.* 37, and thoſe Hand-Glaſſes which ſhort-ſighted People uſe ought to be ſuch Concaves as are laſt mention'd.

40. In all the abovementioned Glaſſes the ſame Aperture, Thickneſs, and focal Diſtance is ſuppoſed, and that they differ in nothing but the Figure ariſing from the various Magnitude and Poſition of their Radii reſpectively. But after all, ſince, as we have ſhewn, the Aberration cauſed by the Figure bears ſo ſmall a Proportion to that by the different Refrangibility of Rays, the Perfection of refracting Teleſcopes becomes deſperate, and can only admit of Improvement by increaſing their Length.

41. From hence long Teleſcopes became of common Uſe; and ſo great were the Improvements of this Sort, that for viewing the celeſtial Bodies the Tube of the Teleſcope

ſtrument, in which B E is a large reflecting Mirrour, with a Hole in the Middle C D. This

Teleſcope was thrown aſide, and a Method invented by *Hugenius* of managing them with much greater Eaſe, and of a greater Length. For he contrived to fix the Object-Glaſs upon the Top of a long upright Pole, and directed its Axis towards any Object by means of a Silk-Line coming down from the Glaſs to the Eye-Glaſs below. In this Manner were Teleſcopes made to the Length of 123 Feet.

42. Theſe were called *Aerial Teleſcopes*, as being uſed without a Tube in a dark Night; for the Uſe of a Tube is not only to direct the Glaſſes, but alſo to make the Part dark where the Images of Objects are formed; for in Teleſcopes, as well as in the *Camera Obſcura*, we ought to have no other Light come to the Eye than what proceeds from the Pictures made of the Objects abroad.

43. In order to underſtand in what Proportion Teleſcopes are to be lengthened, ſo that they ſhall magnify in any propoſed Degree with the ſame Diſtinctneſs and Brightneſs of the Object, we are to conſider, that the Indiſtinctneſs of Viſion conſiſts in this, *that the ſenſible Image of a lucid Point in the Object is not a Point in the Image, but a circular Area*; and that two contiguous Points in the Object make two of thoſe Areas in the Image, whoſe Centres are contiguous; and therefore as thoſe two Areas are mixed almoſt entirely with each other, the Repreſentation of the ſaid two Points in the Object is not diſtinct but confuſed.

44. And ſince this is the Caſe with reſpect to every other Point in the Object, 'tis evident there will be a Mixture of ſo many Points of an Object in every Point of the confuſed Picture, as there are Points in the Circle of Aberration; ſince the Centre of any one Circle of Aberration will be covered by all other Circles of Aberration, whoſe Centres fall within the Perimeter of the firſt mentioned Circle; or, in other Words, there will be ſuch a Number of Points in the Object mixed in

This Mirrour receives the Rays *a c*, *b d*, coming from the Object at a Diſtance, and reflects

any one Point in the confuſed Image, as is proportional to the Area of the Circle of Aberration.

45. Hence, ſince this confuſed Repreſentation of ſeveral Points in one is impreſſed on the Retina by the Eye-Glaſs, and from thence conveyed to the Common Senſory, it appears *that the Indiſtinctneſs of an Object is as the Area of a Circle of Aberration in the Focus of a Teleſcope*, or as the Square of its Diameter.

Plate XLVII. Fig. 5.

46. To illuſtrate this Matter, let A be a given Point, B C an Object-Glaſs of a Teleſcope, B C A a Pencil of Rays coming from the Point upon the Glaſs; each Ray, A B, A C, will be ſo refracted through the Lens, as that the moſt refrangible Part of each will meet and interſect each other in the Point F in the Axis, the mean refrangible Part will go to *c*, and the leaſt refrangible Part will meet and interſect the moſt refrangible on each Side in the Points D and E; therefore D E will be the Diameter of the confuſed Image or Circle of Aberrations *a* D *b* E, and *c* its Centre.

47. Let H I be the Eye-Glaſs, and G its Centre; then will the Angle D G E be that under which the Circle of Aberrations is ſeen at the Eye-Glaſs, and conſequently at the Eye, (as we have ſhewn already). But this Angle is as the Subtenſe D E directly, and as the Perpendicular G *c* inverſely, that is, D G E is as $\frac{DE}{Gc}$; for it increaſes as D E increaſes while G *c* remains the ſame, and as G *c* decreaſes while D E is conſtant; wherefore, ſince D E is always as the Angle D G E, we have D E : $\frac{DE}{Gc}$, and ſo $DE^2 : \frac{DE^2}{Gc^2}$. But DE^2 is as the Area of the Circle of Aberration, and therefore as the Indiſtinctneſs of Viſion; conſequently, the apparent Indiſtinctneſs of a given Object will be as $\frac{DE^2}{Gc^2}$.

reflects them converging to its Focus *e*, where they croſs each other, and form the inverted

48. Therefore the Diſtinctneſs of Viſion will be as $\frac{G\,c^2}{DE^2}$; or, becauſe $DE = \frac{1}{35}\,CB$ the Diameter of the Aperture of the Object-Glaſs, therefore DE^2 will be as CB^2; and ſo the Diſtinctneſs of a given Object will always be as $\frac{G\,c^2}{CB^2}$, that is, *as the Square of the focal Diſtance of the Eye-Glaſs directly, and as the Square of the Diameter or Area of the Aperture inverſely.*

49. If then in any one refracting Teleſcope the Diſtinctneſs of an Object be repreſented by $\frac{G\,c^2}{BC^2}$, and in any other Teleſcope of the ſame Sort by $\frac{G\,c^2}{BC^2}$; then if $\frac{G\,c^2}{BC^2} = \frac{G\,c^2}{BC^2}$, we have $BC^2 \times G\,c^2 = BC^2 \times G\,c^2$, or $BC \times G\,c = BC \times G\,c$; and therefore $BC : BC :: G\,c : G\,c$; that is, *two refracting Teleſcopes ſhew an Object equally diſtinct, when the Diameters of the Apertures of the Object-Glaſſes are as the focal Diſtances of the Eye-Glaſſes.*

50. In reflecting Teleſcopes the Diameter of the Circle of Aberrations was $PQ = \frac{y^3}{4\,a\,a} = \frac{y^3}{D^2}$, (ſuppoſing $D = 2\,a$ Diameter of the Sphere; ſee *Article* 24.) whence $PQ^2 = \frac{y^6}{D^4}$. Let F = focal Diſtance of the Eye-Glaſs, then the Indiſtinctneſs of Viſion will be as $\frac{PQ^2}{F^2}$ (*Article* 47.) $= \frac{y^6}{D^4 \times F^2}$.

51. Therefore if the ſame Parts in another Teleſcope of this Sort be repreſented by $\frac{PQ^2}{F^2} = \frac{y^6}{D^4 \times F^2}$

inverted Image IM. xy is a ſmall concave Mirrour, whoſe Focus is at f, at a ſmall Diſtance

and ſince the Diſtinctneſs in each will be as $\frac{D^4 F^2}{y^6}$, and $\frac{D^4 F^2}{y^6}$; then if we ſuppoſe the Object ſeen equally diſtinct in both, we ſhall have $D^4 F^2 \times y^6 = D^4 F^2 \times y^6$, or $D^2 F y^3 = D^2 F y^3$. Hence $F : F :: \frac{y^3}{D^2} : \frac{y^3}{D^2}$; that is, *Reflecting Teleſcopes ſhew an Object equally diſtinct, when the focal Diſtances of the Eye-Glaſſes are as the Cubes of the Diameters of the large Specula or Object-Metals, divided by the Square of the Diameter of the Spheres to which they are ground, or by the Square of the focal Diſtance of the Metals.*

52. In any Teleſcope, or Double Microſcope, the Brightneſs of a given Image will be as the Quantity of Light by which it is ſhewn; that is, as the Area of the Aperture of the Object-Glaſs, or as the Square of the Diameter.

53. Alſo, if the Area of the Aperture of an Object-Glaſs be given, the Brightneſs of the Image will be inverſely as its Area, or Square of its Diameter or Breadth: For the leſs the Area of the Picture is, the greater will be its Brightneſs by the ſame Quantity of Light.

54. Therefore when neither the Apertures of the Glaſſes nor the Amplifications of the Picture are given, or the ſame, the Brightneſs is as the Square of the Diameter of the Apertures directly, and the Square of the linear Dimenſions of the Pictures inverſely.

55. Hence in all Sorts of Teleſcopes a given Object appears equally bright, when the Diameters of the Apertures are as the linear Dimenſions of the Pictures: But the Picture is larger as the focal Diſtances of the Object-Glaſſes is ſo, and alſo as the focal Diſtance of the Eye-Glaſs is leſs; therefore the linear Dimenſions of Pictures are as the focal Diſtances of the Object-Glaſſes directly,

Diſtance from the Image. By this Means the Rays coming from the Images are reflected directly, and as the focal Diſtances of the Eye-Glaſſes inverſely. Let theſe be repreſented by F and *F*, and f, *f*, in any two Teleſcopes; let D, *d*, be the Diameters of the Apertures, and L, *l*, the linear Dimenſions of the Pictures; then we have $D : d :: L : l :: \frac{F}{f} : \frac{F}{f}$, when Objects appear equally bright in both.

56. Hence, ſince the Brightneſs of a Picture or Image is as $\frac{D^2}{L^2}$ (*Art.* 54.) $= \frac{D^2 f^2}{F^2}$, (becauſe $L = \frac{F}{f}$ by the laſt) therefore if D or f be each increaſed in any Ratio, the Diſtinctneſs will remain the ſame as before, (by *Art.* 49.) and the linear Dimenſions of the Image will be diminiſhed in the ſame Ratio, (ſince L is inverſely as f) but the Brightneſs of the Image will be increaſed in the quadruplicate Ratio of what it had before. For,

57. Suppoſe F or the focal Length of the Teleſcope given, then the Brightneſs of the Picture will be in this Caſe as $D^2 f^2$; and if D and f be increaſed each in the Ratio of 1 to *m*, then will the Brightneſs be in this Caſe as $m^2 D^2 f^2 m^2 = D^2 f^2 m^4$; ſo that the former Brightneſs is to this as $D^2 f^2$ to $D^2 f^2 m^4$, that is, as 1 to m^4; which Ratio is quadruplicate of the Ratio 1 to *m*.

58. Becauſe we had $D : \frac{F}{f}$, or $D f : F$, when Objects appear equally bright, (by *Art.* 55.) and when they are ſhewn equally diſtinct we had D : f (by *Art.* 49); therefore in refracting Teleſcopes of various Lengths, that Objects may appear equally bright and equally diſtinct, it is requiſite that $D^2 : F$, and $f^2 : F$, or that $D : f : \sqrt{F}$; that is, *the Diameter of the Aperture and alſo the focal Length of the Eye-Glaſs ſhould each be as the Square Root of the focal Diſtance or Length of the Teleſcope.*

flected back through the central Hole CD of the large Mirrour, where they fall on the

59. In this Caſe likewiſe *the linear Dimenſions of the Picture or Image are in the ſame ſubduplicate Ratio of the Length of the Teleſcope*; becauſe, as was ſhewn, (*Art.* 55.) the linear Dimenſions are directly as the Diameter of the Aperture, which is here ſhewn to be as the Square Root of the Length of the Teleſcope.

60. In reflecting Teleſcopes, when the Diſtinctneſs is given, we have $F : \frac{y^3}{D^2}$, and therefore $y^3 : D^2 F$. (See *Article* 51.) Alſo when the Brightneſs is given we have $y : \frac{D}{F}$, (*Art.* 55.) therefore $F : \frac{D}{y}$. Hence, when the Diſtinctneſs and Brightneſs are both given, we have $y^3 : (D^2 F) : \frac{D^3}{y}$, or $y^4 : D^3$, or $y : D^{\frac{3}{4}}$.

61. The linear Dimenſions of the Picture $\frac{D}{F}$ were as y; that is, in this Caſe, $\frac{D}{F} : D^{\frac{3}{4}}$, and therefore $D : FD^{\frac{3}{4}}$; whence $F : \frac{D}{D^{\frac{3}{4}}} : D^{\frac{1}{4}}$. *Hence in reflecting Teleſcopes of different Lengths a given Object will appear equally diſtinct and bright, when the Diameters of the Object-Metals are as the Biquadrate Roots of the Cubes of the Diameters of the Spheres or focal Lengths of the Specula*; or, *when the focal Diſtances of the Eye-Glaſſes are as the Biquadrate Root of the focal Diſtance of the Specula.*

62. According to the Theorems in *Art.* 48, 49, HUGENIUS calculated a Table of the linear Aperture of the Object-Glaſs, the focal Diſtance of the Eye-Glaſs, and the linear Amplification or magnifying Power of the Teleſcope from one which he found by Experience was conſtructed in the beſt Manner. I have reduced his *Rhinland* Meaſures to *Engliſh* Feet, Inches, and Decimal Parts, as follows.

Focal

the plano-convex Lens W X, and are by it converged to a Focus, and there form a ſecond

Focal Diſtance of the Object-Glaſs.	*Linear Aperture of the Object-Glaſs.*	*Focal Diſtance of the Eye-Glaſs.*	*Magnifying Power.*
Feet.	Inch. Dec.	Inch. Dec.	
1	0,545	0,605	20
2	0,76	0,84	27,6
3	0,94	1,04	33,5
4	1,08	1,18	39,5
5	1,21	1,33	44
6	1,32	1,45	49
7	1,43	1,58	53
8	1,53	1,69	55
9	1,62	1,78	59
10	1,71	1,88	62
15	2,10	2,30	76
20	2,43	2,68	88
30	3,00	3,28	108
40	3,43	3,76	125
50	3,84	4,20	140
60	4,20	4,60	152
70	4,55	5,00	164
80	4,83	5,35	176
90	5,15	5,65	187
100	5,40	5,95	197
120	5,90	6,52	216

63. Since it has been ſhewn that the Errors ariſing from the different Refrangibility of Rays, and of Conſequence the Indiſtinctneſs of Viſion by refracting Teleſcopes is ſo very great, a Queſtion may be put, How it comes to paſs Objects appear through ſuch Teleſcopes ſo diſtinct as they do? To which it may be anſwer'd, 'Tis becauſe the erratic Rays are not uniformly ſcatter'd over

ſecond Image RS, very large and erect, which is viewed by a *Meniſcus Eye-Glaſs* YZ

all the Area of the Circle of Aberration, but collected infinitely more denſely in the Centre than in any other Part of that circular Space, growing rarer and rarer towards the Circumference, where, in Compariſon, they are infinitely rare, and affect not the Senſe any where but in the Centre, and very near it, on that Account.

64. 'Tis farther to be obſerved, that the moſt luminous of all the Priſmatic Colours are the Yellow and the Orange; theſe effect the Senſes more ſtrongly than all the reſt put together; and next to theſe in Strength are the Red and Green. The Blue compared with theſe is a faint and dark Colour, and the Indigo and Violet are much darker and fainter; ſo that theſe, compared with the ſtronger Colours, are little to be regarded.

65. The Images of Objects are therefore to be placed not in the Focus of the mean refrangible Rays, which are in the Confine of Green and Blue, but in the Focus of thoſe Rays which are in the Middle of the Orange and Yellow, there where the Colour is moſt luminous and fulgent; that is, the brighteſt Yellow, that Yellow which inclines more to Orange than to Green.

66. Now it has been ſhewn (*Annot.* CXVIII. 9.) that the Diameter of the Circle in which both thoſe Colours will be contained is but the 260th Part of the Diameter of the Aperture of the Object-Glaſs; and farther, about $\frac{1}{3}$ of the brighter Halves of the Red and Green (on each Side) will fall within this Circle, and the remaining $\frac{2}{3}$ without it, which will be ſpread over twice the Space nearly, and therefore become much rarer. Of the other Half of the Red and Green, about one Quarter will fall within this Circle, and $\frac{3}{4}$ without, and be ſpread through four or five times the Space, and therefore become much rarer. Alſo this extreme Red and Green is much rarer and darker than the other Parts of the ſame Colours; and the Blue and Violet

YZ by the Eye at P, through a very ſmall Hole in the End of the Eye-Piece YCDZ.

IF

being much darker Colours than theſe, and more rarified, may be quite neglected.

67. Hence the ſenſible confuſed Image of a lucid Point is ſcarce broader than a Circle whoſe Diameter is the 260th Part of that of the Aperture of the Glaſs, if we except the dark miſty Light round about, which we ſcarce regard. And therefore in a Teleſcope whoſe Aperture is 4 Inches, and Length 100 Feet, it exceeds not $2\frac{1}{2}''$ or $3''$; and in a Teleſcope whoſe Aperture is 2 Inches, and Length 20 or 30 Feet, it may be about $5''$ or $6''$, and ſcarce above. And this anſwers well to Experience; for it is obſervable that in Teleſcopes of 20 or 30 Feet long, the Diameters of the Fixed Stars appear to be about $5''$ or $6'$, or at moſt not more than $8''$ or $10''$.

68. Now if we ſuppoſe the ſenſible Image of a lucid Point to be even a 250th Part of the Diameter of the Aperture of the Glaſs, yet will this be much greater than if it were only from the ſpherical Figure of the Glaſs, *viz.* (in an 100 Foot Teleſcope) in the Ratio of $\frac{4}{250}$ to $\frac{961}{72000000}$, or of 1200 to 1. (See *Art.* 20, 21.) Therefore the Image of a lucid Point would ſtill be a Point, but for the various Refrangibility of the Rays; and this alone is the invincible Obſtacle to perfect Viſion by any refracting Inſtruments.

69. The magnifying Power of a refracting Teleſcope is thus eſtimated. Let AB be the Object-Glaſs, and CD the Eye-Glaſs; and let HFI and GFM be two Rays coming from the extreme Parts of a diſtant Object, and croſſing each other in the Centre F of the Glaſs AB. Then is the Angle GFM = IFM that under which the Object appears to the naked Eye; but IEM = CKD is that under which the Image appears as magnified by the Eye-Glaſs CD. But the Angle IEM is to the Angle IFM as LF to LE, or *as the* Plate XLVII. Fig. 6.

focal

IF the firſt Lens W X were taken away, the Image would be formed ſomewhat larger at

focal Diſtance of the Object-Glaſs to the focal Diſtance of the Eye-Glaſs; and in that Proportion is the Object magnified, as was obſerved before in *Art.* 55.

Plate XLVII. Fig. 7.

70. The magnifying Power of a reflecting Teleſcope is thus computed. The parallel Rays K B and L E are reflected by the large Object-Metal A F to its Focus *a*, where the Image I M is formed; which Image is defined by two other Rays N Q, P Q, coming from the extreme Parts of the Object at a remote Diſtance, and meeting in the Centre of the large Speculum at Q; for it has been ſhewn that the Object and its Image both appear under the ſame Angle from the Vertex of the Mirrour. (*Annot.* CXXV.)

71. Now if *f* be the Focus of the ſmall Mirrour G H, ſuppoſing the Image were formed in the ſaid Focus *f*, (that is, that both the Foci *a* and *f* were coincident) then the Rays proceeding from the Image I M will proceed parallel after Reflection, and produce diſtinct Viſion of the Image, which will then ſubtend an Angle I O M at the Centre O of the Speculum G H; which is to the Angle I Q M, under which the Object appears to the naked Eye, as *a* Q to *a* O or *f* O. So that the magnifying Power would in this Caſe be as $\frac{a\,Q}{f\,O}$.

72. But to increaſe this magnifying Power, the Image I M is not placed in the Focus of the ſmall Speculum, but at a ſmall Diſtance beyond it; by which means the Rays coming from the Image to the Speculum G H will be reflected converging to a diſtant Focus R, where a ſecondary large Image *I M* is formed from the firſt Image I M; which Image *I M* is ſeen under the ſame Angle *I O M* with the former from the Centre of the Speculum G H, but from the Centre of the Eye-Glaſs T V it is ſeen under the large Angle *I S M*. But the Angle *I S M* is to the Angle *I O M* as O R to S R; wherefore

at $M g$; but the *Area*, or *Scope*, would be leſs, and therefore the View not ſo pleaſant.

At

wherefore the ſecond Ratio or Part of the magnifying Power is that of $\frac{OR}{SR}$.

73. Conſequently, the whole magnifying Power of the Teleſcope is $\frac{aQ}{aO} \times \frac{OR}{SR}$ (becauſe in this Caſe fO becomes aO). Or, in other Words, the Angle N Q P, under which the Object appears to the naked Eye, is to the Angle I S M, under which the large magnified ſecondary Image $I M$ appears to the Eye through the Eye-Glaſs, as $\frac{aQ \times OR}{aO \times SR}$. Such is the Theory of the Teleſcope firſt contrived by Dr. *J. Gregorie*, and therefore call'd the *Gregorian Teleſcope*; but it received its laſt Improvement from the late Mr. *Hadley*, and is now in common Uſe.

74. A ſmall Alteration was made in the Structure of this Teleſcope by Mr. *Caſſegrain*, viz. in uſing a convex Speculum $G H$, inſtead of the concave one G H. Now if they are equally ſpherical, that is, if they are Segments of the ſame Sphere, then will f be alſo the virtual Focus of the convex $G H$; and if all other Things remain the ſame, the firſt Image I M will be virtually the ſame as before, and the laſt Image $I M$ will be really the ſame; ſo that the magnifying Power of this Form of the Teleſcope is $\frac{aQ \times OR}{aO \times SR}$, which is equal to that of *Gregorie*'s Form.

75. And ſince to ſhew this, is a curious Propoſition, I ſhall give the following eaſy Demonſtration thereof. Let H D be a concave Speculum, and E C a convex one, both deſcribed with the ſame Radius C D, on the common Axis B C D: The Point N, biſecting the Radius C D, will be the Solar Focus to each Speculum. Let F be a radiant Point, from whence a Ray F H is incident

Pl. XL. Fig. 8.

At TV is placed a circular Piece of Braſs, with a Hole of a proper Size to circumſcribe

incident upon the concave Mirrour in H, or to which the Ray K E incident upon the convex Mirrour tends; both thoſe Rays will be reflected to the ſame Point B in the Axis, and in the ſame Line E B. Laſtly, let G F be an Object; the Image thereof $a\,b$ formed by the Concave is equal to the Image A B made by the Convex. This is evident from the Theorems $\frac{dr}{2d \times r} = f$, and $\frac{dr}{r-2d} = f$, thoſe Specula reſpectively.

76. For as $d = $ F C, C B $= f$ in the Convex; ſo in the Concave let F D $= D$, and D B $= F$; and then we have in the former $d : f :: 2d + r : r$, and in the latter $D : F :: r - 2D : r$. But $D = d + r$, therefore $2D = 2d + 2r$; whence $r - 2D = 2d + r$, conſequently $d : f :: D : F$; that is, CF : CB :: DF : DB. But the Object and Image are to each other in the ſame Ratio in either Glaſs; and therefore ſince the Object is the ſame in both, the Image will be ſo likewiſe, or A B $= a\,b$.

Plate XLVII. Fig. 9.

77. Sir *Iſaac Newton* ordered this Teleſcope to be made in a different Form or Manner, as follows. A B C D was a large octagonal Tube or Caſe; E F a large poliſhed Speculum, whoſe Focus is at o; G H a plane Speculum truly concenter'd, and fixed at half a Right Angle with the Axis of the large one. Then parallel Rays a E, b F, incident on the large Speculum E F, inſtead of being reflected to the Focus o, were intercepted by the ſmall plane Speculum G H, and by it reflected towards a Hole $c\,d$ in the Side of the Tube, croſſing each other in the Point O, which is now the true focal Point; and from thence they proceed to an Eye-Glaſs $e\,f$ placed in that Hole, whoſe focal Diſtance is very ſmall, and therefore the Power of magnifying may be very great in this Form of the Teleſcope; becauſe the Image I M is made by one Reflection, (for that

ſcribe the Image, and cut off all ſuperfluous or extraneous Rays, that ſo the Object may appear as diſtinct as poſſible.

As the Image is formed by Reflection, the Rays of every Sort will be united nearly in one Point, and will therefore admit of an Eye-Glaſs Y Z of a deep Charge, or ſmall focal Diſtance; and ſo the Power of magnifying will be proportionally greater; for it will be in a Proportion compounded of $\frac{Q\,e}{e\,G}$ and $\frac{G\,k}{k\,t}$, if only one Eye-Glaſs Y z be uſed. Thus, in Numbers, ſuppoſe $Q\,e = 12$ Inches, $e\,G = 3{,}5$; $G\,k = 18$, and $k\,t = 1$; then will $\frac{12}{3{,}5} \times \frac{18}{1} = 216$

that of the plane Speculum only alters the Courſe of the Rays, and adds nothing to the Confuſion of the Image) and will for that Reaſon bear being view'd by a Glaſs of a very deep Charge, in compariſon of an Image form'd by differently refrangible Rays.

78. This Teleſcope is a very good one, as to its Effect or Performance, but is not ſo commodious for common Uſe as thoſe of the *Gregorian* Form, and is therefore now pretty much laid aſide. They who would ſee a larger Account hereof may conſult Sir *Iſaac*'s *Optics*, and ſeveral *Philoſophical Tranſactions*, where he deſcribes it at large, and the Reaſons which induced him to make choice of this Structure rather than that of Dr. *Gregorie*: Or ſee a compendious Account of the whole in the laſt Edition of Dr. *Gregorie's Elements of Optics*.

$\frac{216}{3,5} = 61,71$ nearly; whence by ſuch a Teleſcope the Length of an Object will be magnified 50 times, the Surface 2500 times, and the Solidity 125000 times; yet the Teleſcope not above 20 Inches long; an Effect equal to that of a refracting Teleſcope 16 Feet in Length.

As to the *Camera Obſcura*, and *Magic Lanthorn*, they both perform their Effects by a ſingle Lens; the former being only the Object-Glaſs of a long Teleſcope applied in a *Scioptric Ball* to the Hole of a Window-Shutter in a darken'd Room; which gives a lively Picture of all the Objects which lie before it, in true Perſpective, but in an *inverted Poſition*, on a white Sheet or Plane held at the focal Diſtance of the ſaid Glaſs: And on the other hand, the *Magic Lanthorn* is only a large convex Lens, with a ſhort Focal Diſtance, which by being placed at a proper Diſtance from ſmall tranſparent-colour'd Pictures or Figures, forms a large and ſurprizing Image thereof at a great Diſtance; in order to which, it is neceſſary to illuminate them very ſtrongly with the Light of the Candle thrown on them by another

another *very large and very convex Lens* (CXXIX).

THE

(CXXIX) 1. The CAMERA OBSCURA, or *Darken'd Room*, is made after two different Methods; one is the *Obſcura Camera*, or Darken'd Chamber at large, and properly ſo call'd; that is, any large Room or Chamber made as dark as poſſible, ſo as to exclude all Light but that which is to paſs through the Hole and Lens in the Ball fixed in the Window of the ſaid Room.

2. The other is in ſmall, and made in various Ways, as that of a Box, a Book whoſe Sides fold out, *&c.* for the Conveniency of carrying it from Place to Place, for taking an Optic View in Picture of any propoſed Place or Part of the Country, Town, *&c.* and hence it is call'd the *Portable Camera Obſcura.*

3. The following Particulars are to be attended to in this Philoſophical Contrivance. *Firſt*, That the Lens be extremely good, or free from any Veins, Blebs, *&c.* which may diſtort and blemiſh the Picture.

4. *Secondly*, That the Lens be always placed directly againſt the Object whoſe Picture you would have perfectly form'd to contemplate; for if the Glaſs has any other Poſition to the Object, the Image will be very imperfect, indiſtinct, and confuſed.

5. *Thirdly*, Care ought to be taken, that the Ball be ſufficiently large, and the Frame in which it is placed not too thick, that ſo there may be ſufficient Room for turning the Ball every Way, to take in as many Objects as poſſible, and to render the Uſe thereof moſt compleat.

6. *Fourthly*, The Lens ought to be of a juſt Magnitude or Aperture; for if it be too ſmall, the Image will be obſcure, and the minute Parts not viſible at a Diſtance for want of requiſite Light. On the other hand, if the Aperture be too large, the Image will be confuſed, and become indiſtinct by too much Light.

7. Therefore, *Fifthly*, if by Experience I find that an Aperture of 2 Inches Diameter is beſt for a Lens of 6 Feet focal Diſtance, I know (from what has been ſaid in the laſt *Annotation*) that the Diameter of any other

THE *Solar Microſcope* is of the ſame Kind with the *Magic Lanthorn*; only here the Objects

other Lens of a different focal Diſtance ought to be in the ſubduplicate Ratio of 6 to the ſaid focal Diſtance, that the Object, or its Image rather, may be equally bright and diſtinct in both.

8. *Sixthly*, We ought not to attempt to exhibit a Picture of Objects in a dark Room, unleſs the Sun ſhines upon or ſtrongly illuminates the Objects; for mere Daylight is not ſufficient for this Purpoſe, the greateſt Beauty in this Phænomenon being the exquiſite Appearance and Contraſt of Light and Shadows, none of which can appear but from an Object placed in the Sun Beams; without which every thing looks dark and dull, and makes a diſagreeable Figure.

9. Therefore, *Seventhly*, the Window, or that Side of the Room where the Scioptric Ball is uſed, ought to look towards that Quarter directly upon which the Sun ſhines, that ſo the illuminated Sides of Objects may preſent themſelves to the Lens, and appear more glorious in the Picture.

10. *Eighthly*, Hence it is eaſy to infer, that the beſt Time of the Day for this Experiment is about Noon, becauſe the Sun-Beams are then ſtrongeſt, and of courſe the Picture moſt luminous and diſtinct: Alſo that a North Window is the beſt; though for viewing the Shadows in greateſt Perfection, an Eaſt or Weſt Window will anſwer the End beſt.

11. *Ninthly*, As the Image is formed only by the reflected Rays of the Sun, ſo due Care ſhould be taken that none of the Sun's direct Rays fall on the Lens in the Window; for if they do, they will, by mixing with the former, greatly diſturb the Picture, and render it very confuſed and unpleaſant to view.

12. *Tenthly*, As white Bodies reflect the incident Rays moſt copiouſly, and black ones abſorb them moſt; ſo to make the Picture moſt perfect it ought to be received upon a very white Surface, as Paper, a painted Cloth, Wall, *&c.* bordered round with Black, that ſo the collateral

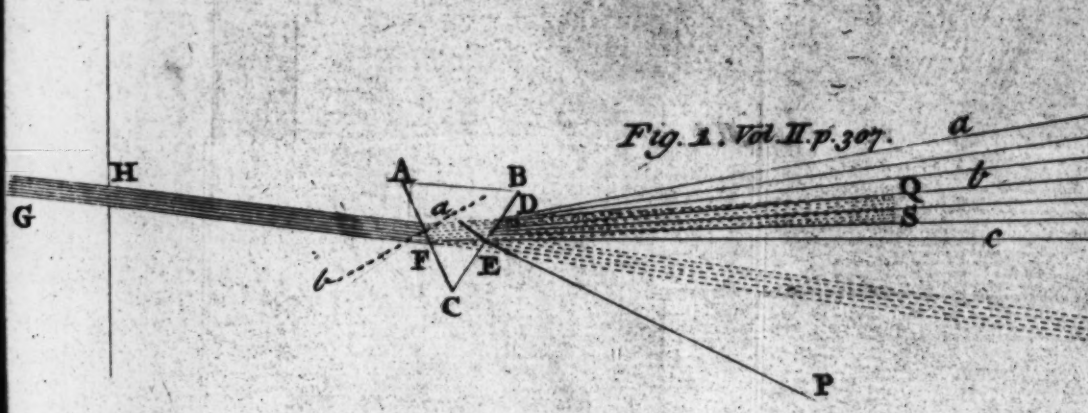


Fig. 1. Vol. II. p. 307.

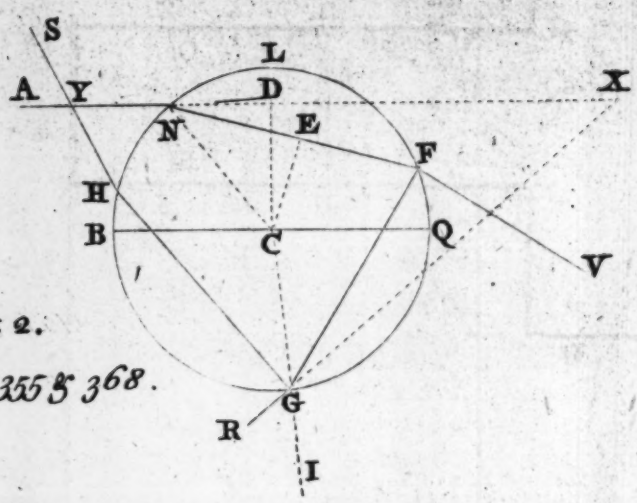
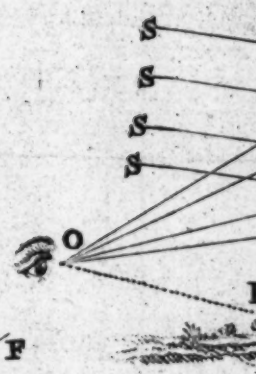


Fig. 2.
Vol. II. p. 355 & 368.



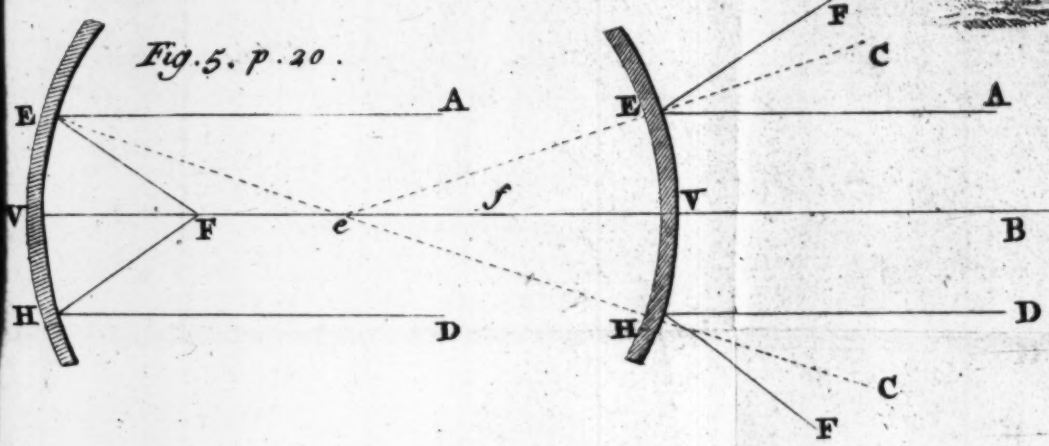
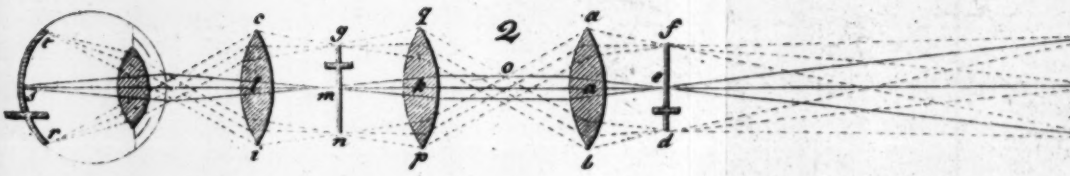


Fig. 5. p. 20.

Fig: 6. p. 20.



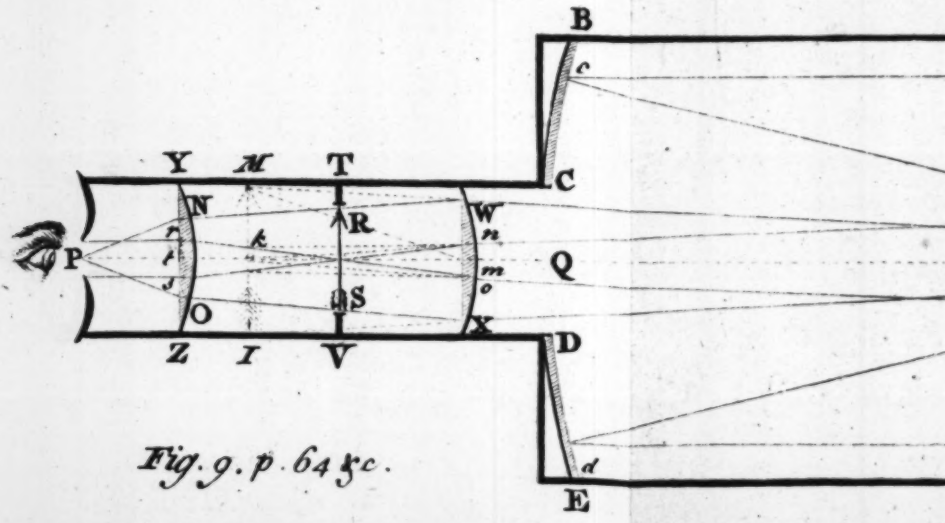
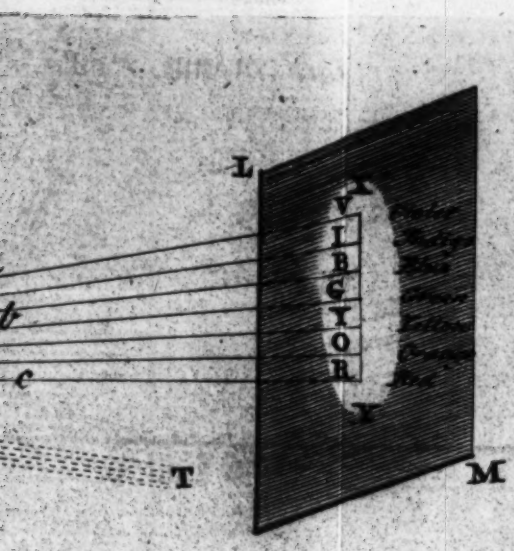


Fig. 9. p. 64 &c.



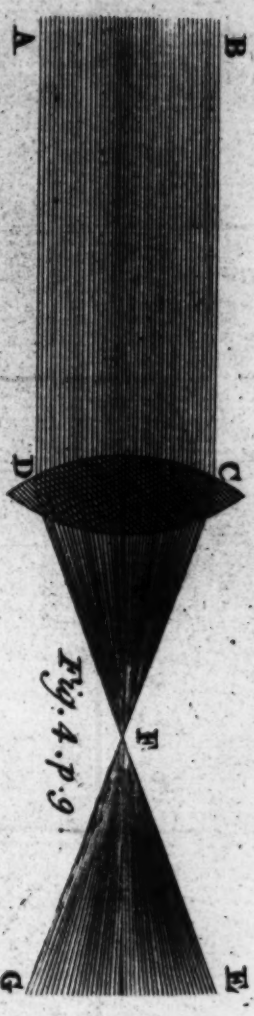
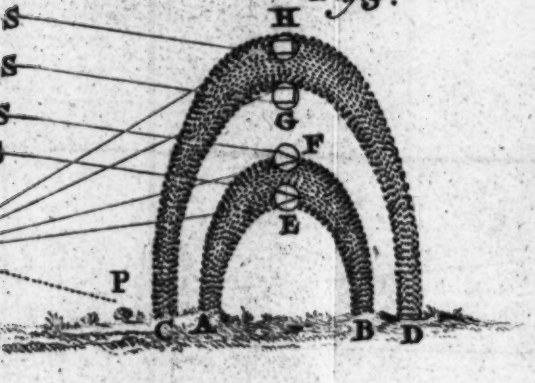


Fig. 4. p. 9.

Fig 3.



A

B

D

Fig. 7. p. 22.

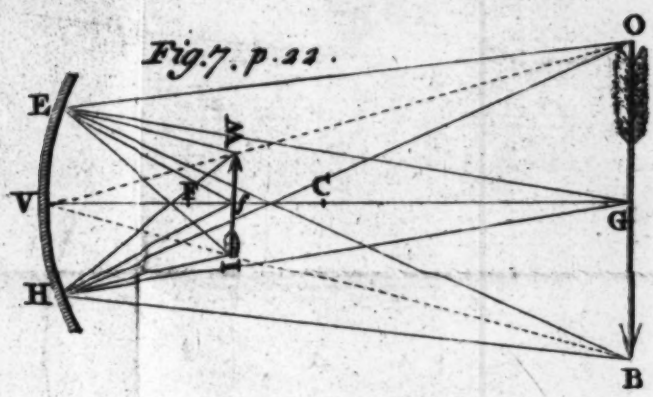
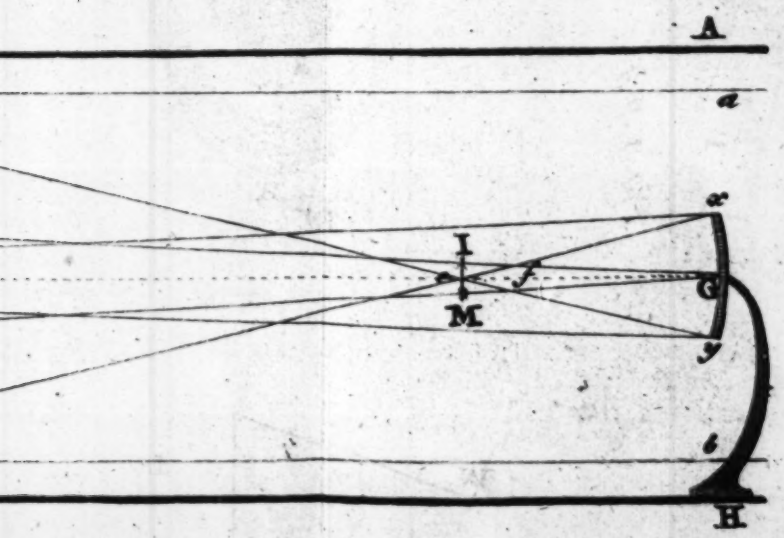


Fig. 8.
p. 53.



Objects are very ſmall, and ſtrongly enlighten'd by the Sun through a concave Lens;

collateral Rays which come from on each Side the Object may be ſtifled, and not ſuffered to diſturb the Picture by Reflection.

13. Theſe are the neceſſary Precautions for the due ordering of the various Circumſtances of this Experiment. I ſhall now enumerate the ſeveral *principal Phænomena* of the Dark Chamber. The *Firſt* of which is, that an exact and every-way ſimilar Image is formed of an external Object; for Pencils of Rays coming from all Points of the Object will repreſent thoſe Points in ſuch a Manner and Poſition as will be very proportional and correſpondent to their reſpective Poſitions and Diſtances in the Object, ſo that the Whole in the Image ſhall bear an exact Similitude or Likeneſs of the Object in every Reſpect.

14. The *Second Phænomenon* is, that the Image will bear the ſame Proportion to the Object, whether a Line, Superficies, or Solid, as their Diſtances from the Glaſs reſpectively: This is evident from what has been ſaid relating to the Effect of a convex Lens. Hence the larger the focal Diſtance of the Glaſs, the more ample will be the Picture of the ſame Object, but the leſs will be the Space or Compaſs of the Plan or perſpective View.

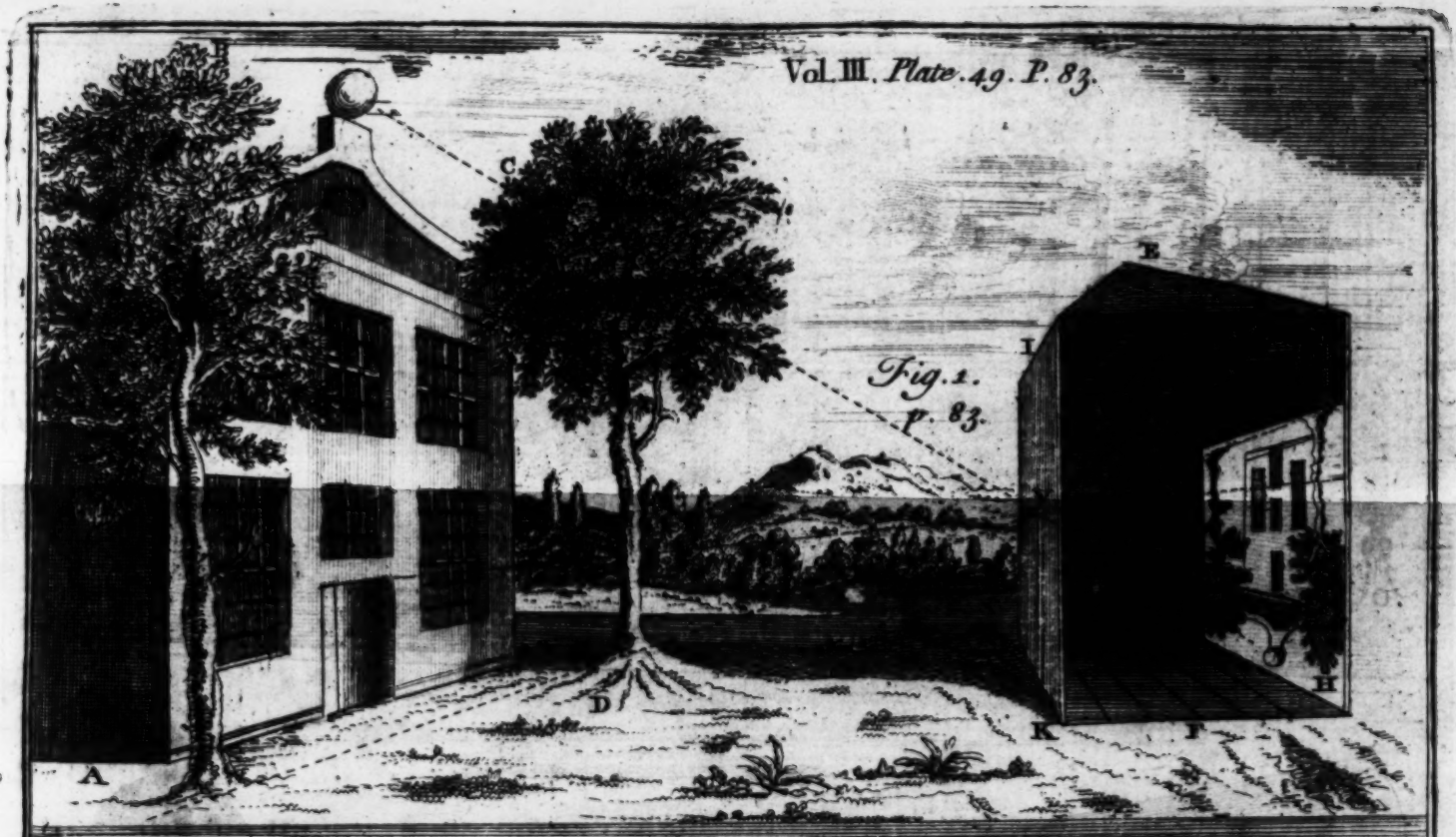
15. The *Third Phænomenon* is, that the Image or Picture of the Object is *inverted*; and this is not the Effect of the Glaſs, but the croſſing of the Rays in the Hole through which they paſs into the Room; for if a very ſmall Hole were made in the Window-Shutter of a darken'd Room, the Objects without would be all ſeen inverted, thoſe which come from the upper Part of the Object going to the lower Part of the Image, and *vice verſâ*. All that the Glaſs does is to render the Image diſtinct, by converging the Rays of every Pencil to their proper Focus in the Picture, the Poſition of each Point being the ſame as before.

Lens; they are alſo magnified by a ſmall Lens of a very ſhort Focal Diſtance, that the

16. The *Fourth Phænomenon* is the Motion or Reſt of the ſeveral Parts of the Picture, according as thoſe of the Object are in either State. The Reaſon of this is very obvious; and this it is that gives Life and Spirit to the Painting and Portraits of Nature, and is the only Particular inimitable by Art. And indeed a more critical Idea may be formed of any Movement in the Picture of a darken'd Room, than from obſerving the Motion of the Object itſelf: For Inſtance, a Man walking in a Picture appears to have an undulating Motion, or to riſe up and down every Step he takes; whereas nothing of this Kind is obſerved in the Man himſelf, as viewed by the bare Eye.

17. The *Fifth Phænomenon* is the *Colouring of the Optic Picture*; every Piece of Imagery has its proper Tints and Colours, and thoſe always heighten'd and render'd more intenſe than in the Object; ſo that in this Reſpect it is an Improvement of Nature itſelf, whereas the Art of the greateſt Maſter can only pretend to a diſtant Reſemblance and faint Imitation. The Reaſon why the Image is coloured is becauſe the ſeveral Points of the Object reflecting ſeveral Sorts of colour'd Rays to the Glaſs, thoſe Rays will give a Repreſentation of thoſe ſeveral Points reſpectively, and in their own Colour, and therefore in thoſe of the Object; but thoſe Colours will be heighten'd, becauſe they are crouded into a leſs Space.

18. The *Sixth Phænomenon* is the *Claro Oſcuro*, as the *Italians* call it; that is, the Intenſity of *Light and Shadow* in the Picture: And this, as well as the Colouring, is greatly heighten'd above what it is in the Object, by reaſon of the leſſer Area of the Picture. Here every Light and every Shade is expreſs'd in its proper Degree, from the moſt brilliant in the one, to the moſt jetty black of the other, incluſive of a wonderful Variety in the ſeveral Parts, ariſing from the different Situations of the ſeveral Parts of the Object, and


Vol. III. Plate. 49. P. 83.
Fig. 1.
P. 83.
A
B
C
D
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K

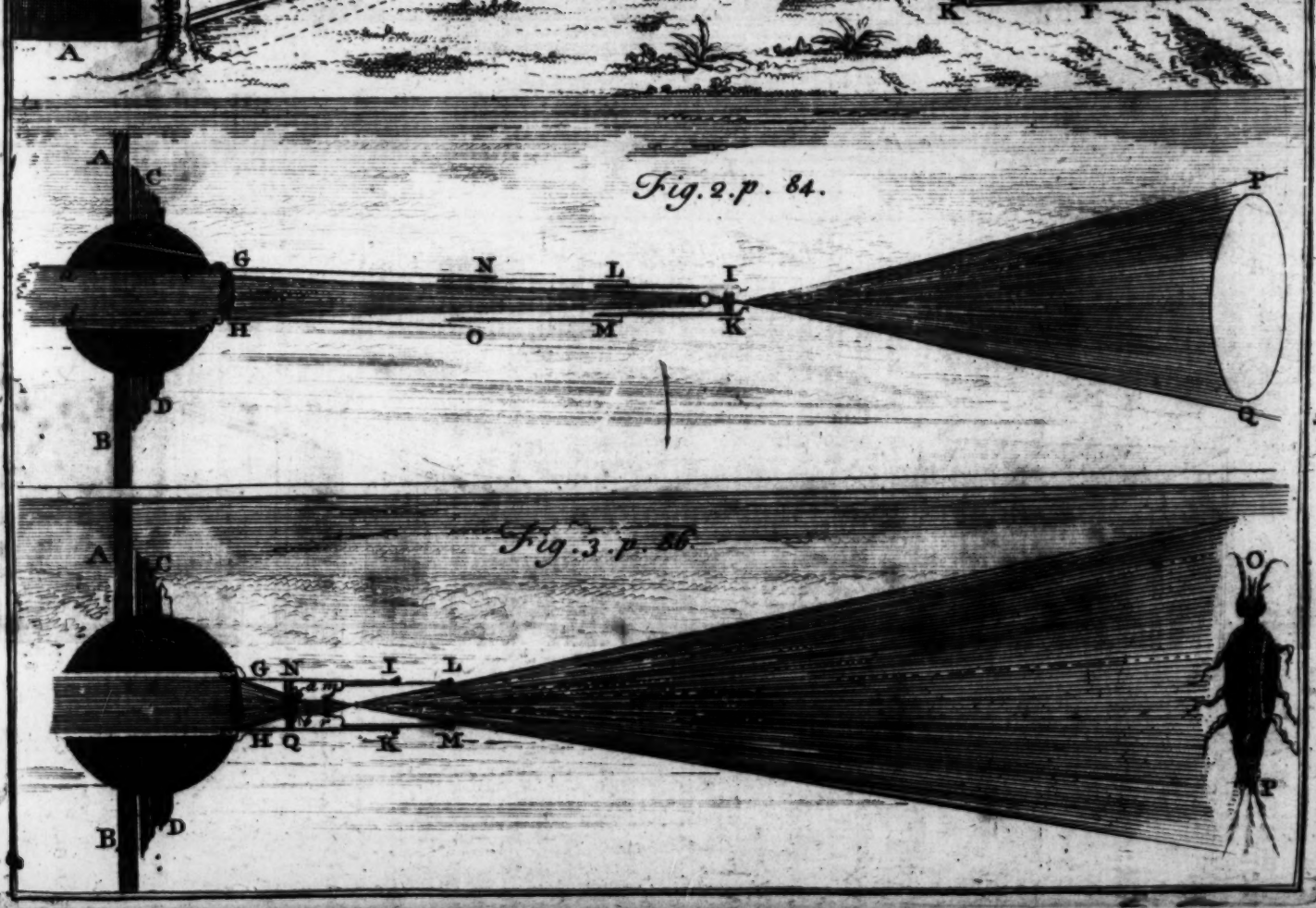


Fig. 2. p. 84.

Fig. 3. p. 86.

the Images may be thrown large and diſtinctly on the oppoſite Wall of a darken'd Room:

and the different Angles of Reflection. A juſt Imitation of Nature in the Diſtribution of Light and Shadows is perhaps the moſt difficult Part of the Art of Painting, and on which its greateſt Perfection depends.

19. The *Seventh Phænomenon* is the *Optical Perſpective*, or Projection of the Image, which is not *in Plano*, or on a Plane, as in common Perſpective, but on a Surface deſcribed by the Revolution of a *Conic Section* about its Axis, as is evident from what was obſerved in *Annot.* CXXV. Therefore, though in general a plane Surface is made uſe of, and may do very well in large Repreſentations, yet in ſmaller ones, as thoſe of the *Portable Camera's*, it is neceſſary, to have the Image or Picture compleat, or every where well defined, that it be received upon the Surface of an *Elliptic Figure*, and ſuch as is ſuited to the middle Diſtance of the Objects. But this is a Nicety which few will think worth regarding, who do not aim at a very great Accuracy indeed in what they do.

20. I ſhall finiſh this Subject with an Obſervation that may be uſeful to Perſons concerned in Drawing, and that is, *That if an Object be placed juſt twice the focal Diſtance from the Glaſs without, the Image will be formed at the ſame Diſtance from the Glaſs within the Room, and conſequently will be equal in Magnitude to the Object itſelf.* The Truth of this is demonſtrated in *Annot.* CXXV.

21. Although every Thing that has been ſaid of the *Camera Obſcura* is plain enough in itſelf to be underſtood, yet as a Repreſentation thereof may facilitate the Idea, I have here given a Diagram for that Purpoſe; where A B C D is the Proſpect of a *Houſe*, *Trees*, &c. E F a darken'd Room, or *Camera Obſcura*; on one Side is the Picture G H of the ſaid View inverted, formed by a convex Lens in the Ball fixed before a Hole in the other Side I K at V. All which is ſo eaſy that nothing more remains to be ſaid to explain it. Plate XLIX. Fig. 1.

Room: Which, if well perform'd, is one of the moſt exquiſitely curious and moſt delightfully ſurprizing Effects that can be produced by any Optical Inſtrument whatſoever (CXXX).

(CXXX) 1. The SOLAR TELESCOPE and SOLAR MICROSCOPE, as they ought to make a Part of the Amuſement of every Virtuoſo and Gentleman, ſo they deſerve a particular Account, and the ſeveral Ways in which they are uſed merit a particular Deſcription, which I ſhall illuſtrate by a Draught of each.

2. The SOLAR TELESCOPE is applied to Uſe in the following Manner. A B repreſents a Part of the Window-Shutter of a darken'd Room, C D the Frame, which (by means of a Screw) contains the Scioptric Ball E F, placed in a Hole of the ſaid Shutter adapted to its Size. This Ball is perforated with a Hole *a b c d* through the Middle; on the Side *b c* is ſcrew'd into the ſaid Hole a Piece of Wood, and in that is ſcrew'd the End of a common refracting Teleſcope G H I K, with its Object-Glaſs G H, and one Eye-Glaſs at I K; and the Tube is drawn out to ſuch a Length, as that the Focus of each Glaſs may fall near the ſame Point.

Plate XLIX. Fig. 2.

3. This being done, the Teleſcope and Ball are moved about in ſuch manner as to receive the Sun-Beams perpendicularly on the Lens G H, through the cylindric Hole of the Ball; by this Glaſs they will be collected all in one circular Spot *m*, which is the Image of the Sun. The Lens I K is to be moved nearer to or farther from the ſaid Image *m*, as the Diſtance at which the Secondary Image of the Sun is to be formed requires, which is done by ſliding the Tube I K L M backwards and forwards in the Tube L M N O. Then of the firſt Image of the Sun *m* will be formed a ſecond Image P Q, very large, luminous, and diſtinct.

4. In this Manner the Sun's Face is view'd at any time without Offence to weak Eyes; and whatever Changes happen therein may be duly obſerved. The *Spots* (which make ſo rare an Appearance to the naked Eye, or through a ſmall Teleſcope in the common Way) are

are here all of them conſpicuous, and eaſy to be obſerved under all their Circumſtances of Beginning to appear, increaſe, Diviſion of one into many, the uniting of many into one, the Magnitude, Decreaſe, Abolition, Diſappearance behind the Sun's Diſk, *&c.*

5. By the *Solar Teleſcope* we alſo view an Eclipſe of the Sun to the beſt Advantage, as having it in our Power by this means to repreſent the Sun's Face or Diſk as large as we pleaſe, and conſequently the Eclipſe proportionably conſpicuous. Alſo the Circle of the Sun's Diſk may be ſo divided by Lines and Circles drawn thereon, that the Quantity of the Eclipſe eſtimated in Digits may this way be moſt exactly determined: Alſo the Moments of the Beginning, Middle, and End thereof, for finding the Longitude of the Place: With ſeveral other Things relating thereto.

6. The Tranſits of *Mercury* and *Venus* over the Face of the Sun are exhibited moſt delightfully by this Inſtrument. They will here appear truly round, well defined, and very black; their comparative Diameters to that of the Sun may this Way be obſerved, the Direction of their Motion, the Times of the Ingreſs and Egreſs, with other Particulars for determining the Parallax and Diſtance of the Sun more nicely than has hitherto been done.

7. By the *Solar Teleſcope* you ſee the Clouds moſt beautifully paſs before the Face of the Sun, exhibiting a curious Spectacle according to their various Degrees of Rarity and Denſity. But the beautiful Colours of the Clouds ſurrounding the Sun, and refracting his Rays, are beſt ſeen in the Picture made by the *Camera-Glaſs*. The fine Azure of the Sky, the intenſely ſtrong and various Dyes of the Margins of Clouds, the *Halo's* and *Corona's*, are this way inimitably expreſs'd. And ſince the Priſmatic Colours of Clouds, ſo variouſly compounded here, make ſo noble and delightful a Phænomenon, I have often wonder'd to ſee no more Regard had thereto by Painters, whoſe Clouds (though near the Sun) are ſeldom or never ſeen tinged or variegated with thoſe natural Tints and Colours.

8. I cannot here omit to mention a very *unuſual Phænomenon* that I obſerved about ten Years ago in my darken'd Room. The Window looked towards the

Weſt, and the Spire of *Chicheſter* Cathedral was directly before it, at the Diſtance of about 50 or 60 Yards. I uſed very often to divert myſelf in obſerving the pleaſant Manner in which the Sun paſs'd behind the Spire, and was eclipſed by it for ſome time; for the Image of the Spire and Sun were very large, being made by a Lens of 12 Feet focal Diſtance. And once as I obſerved the Occultation of the Sun behind the Spire, juſt as the Diſk diſappear'd, I ſaw ſeveral ſmall, bright, round Bodies or Balls running towards the Sun from the dark Part of the Room, even to the Diſtance of 20 Inches. I obſerved their Motion was a little irregular, but rectilinear, and ſeem'd accelerated as they approach'd the Sun. Theſe luminous Globules appear'd alſo on the other Side of the Spire, and preceded the Sun, running out into the dark Room, ſometimes more, ſometimes leſs together, in the ſame manner as they followed the Sun at its Occultation. They appear'd to be in general about $\frac{1}{20}$ of an Inch in Diameter, and therefore muſt be very large luminous Globes in ſome Part of the Heavens, whoſe Light was extinguiſhed by that of the Sun, ſo that they appeared not in open Daylight; but whether of the Meteor-Kind, or what Sort of Bodies they might be, I could not conjecture.

9. The SOLAR MICROSCOPE (ſaid to be the Invention of Dr. *Liburkun* a *German*) is a moſt curious Improvement in *Optics*, and deſerves to be greatly valued; as it is the beſt Method which Nature will admit of, or Art can furniſh, for magnifying and exhibiting very ſmall tranſparent Objects to the View of Spectators.

Plate XLIX. Fig. 3.

10. To this End it has been contrived very commodiouſly in ſeveral different Forms, two of which I ſhall here illuſtrate by Diagrams. The firſt is as follows: A B is a Section of the Window-Shutter of a dark Room, C D of the Frame containing a Scioptric Ball E F; in the Fore-part whereof is ſcrew'd the Tube G I K H, at one End of which is a Lens G H, which by converging the Sun Beams into a narrow Compaſs does ſtrongly enlighten the ſmall Object *a b* placed upon a Slip of Glaſs or otherwiſe in the Part of the Tube N Q, where a Slit is made on each Side for that Purpoſe. Within this Tube there ſlides another L *m n* M, which contains a ſmall magnifying Lens *m n*.

11. By

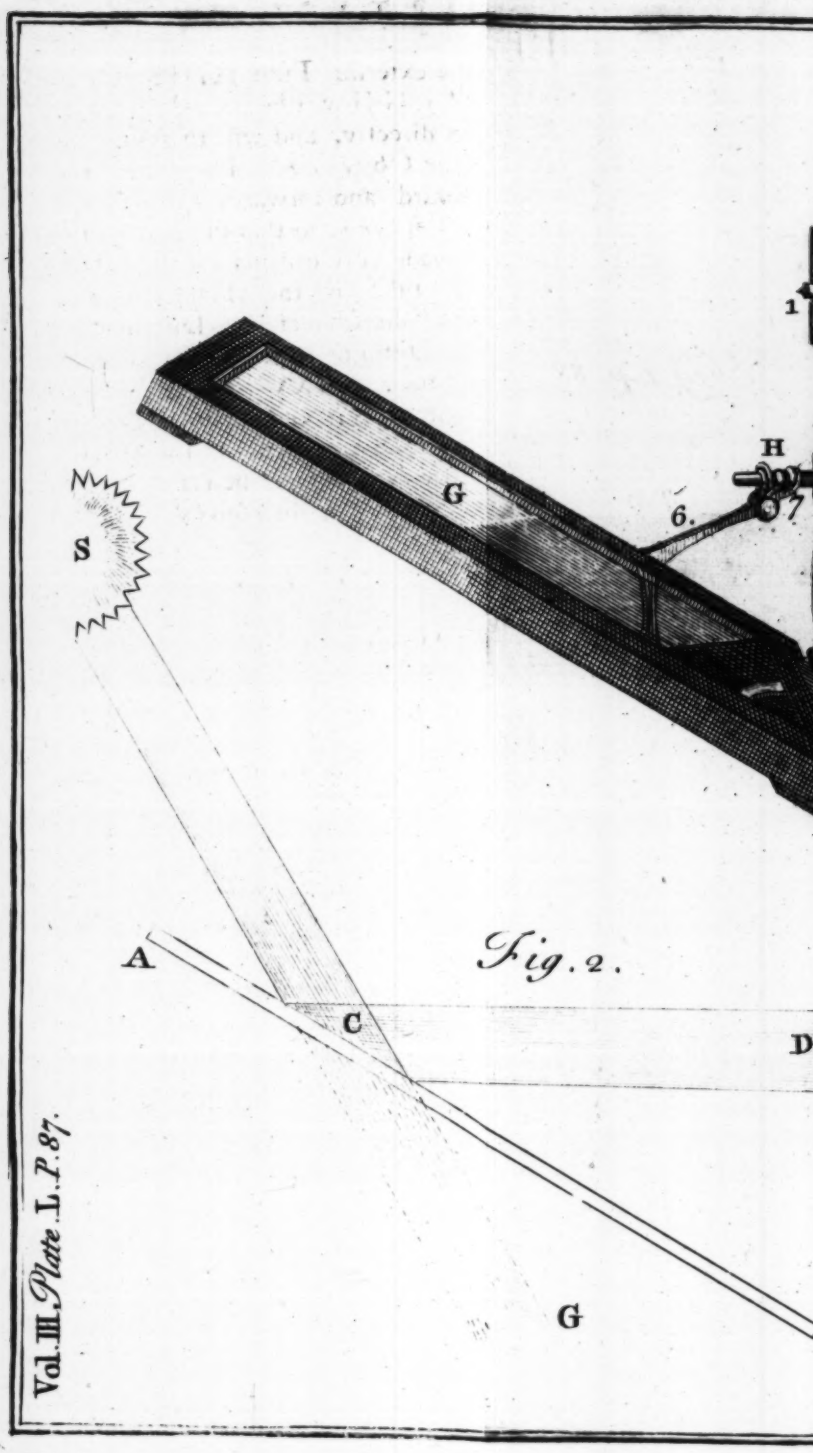


Fig. 2.

Vol. III. *Plate* I. *P.* 87.

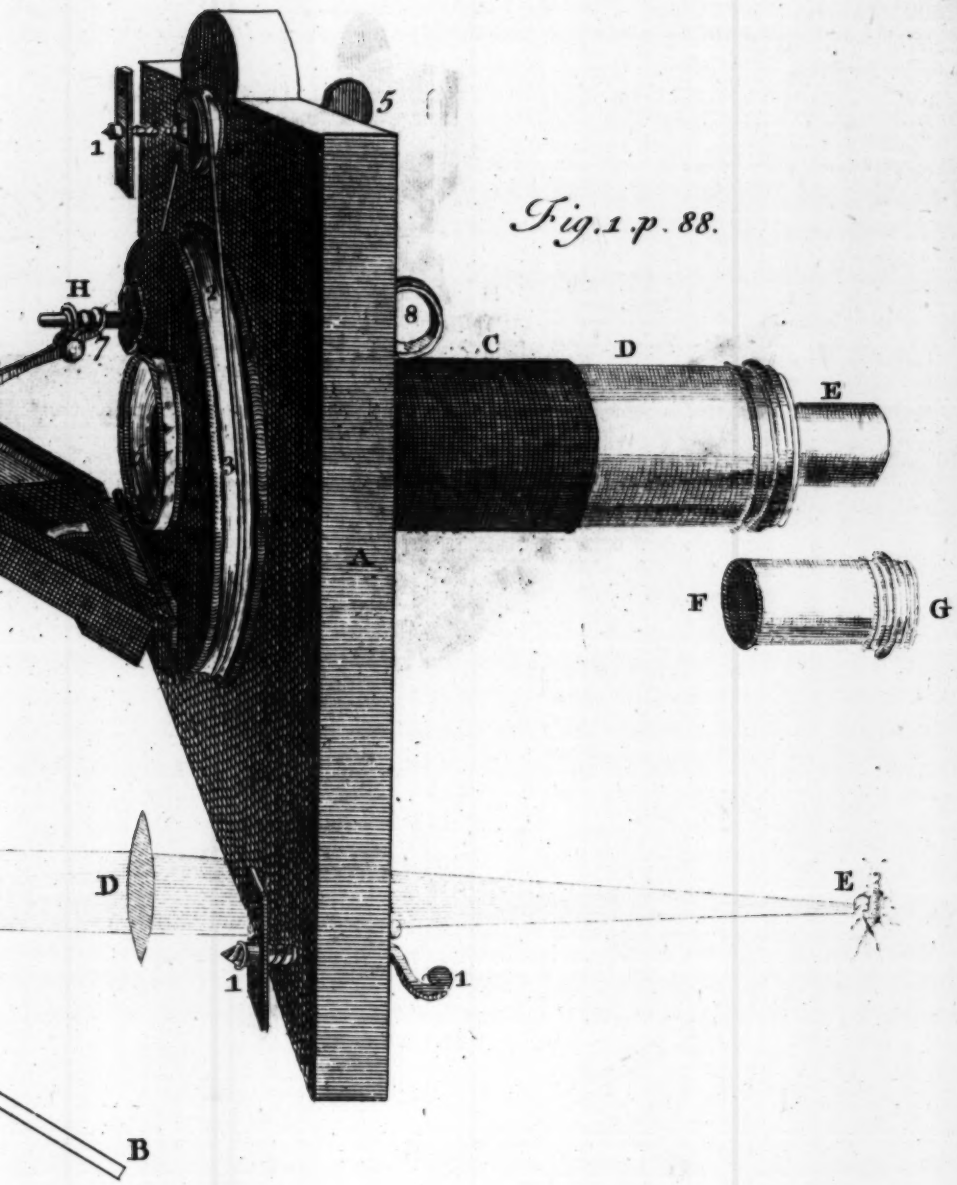


Fig. 1 p. 88.

11. By moving the exterior Tube IGHK one way and the other, the Glaſs G H will be brought to receive the Rays of the Sun directly, and will therefore moſt intenſely illuminate the Object *a b*. The other Tube LM being ſlid backwards and forwards will adjuſt the Diſtance of the ſmall Lens *m n*, ſo that the Image of the Object *a b* ſhall be made very diſtinct on the oppoſite Side of the Room at O P; and the Magnitude of the Image will be to that of the Object as its Diſtance from the Lens *m n* is to the Diſtance of the Object from it, as has been ſhewn in *Annot.* CXXV.

12. Thus for Example: Suppoſe the focal Diſtance of the Lens *m n* to be 1 Inch $= r$, and let the Diſtance at which it is placed from the Object be 1,1 $= d$; then if the Lens be double, and equally convex (as uſual) the Diſtance of the Image will be $\frac{dr}{d-r} = f = 110$; therefore the Image will be 110 times larger than the Object in its linear Dimenſions, and $110 \times 110 = 12100$ times larger in Surface, and in Solidity it will be $110 \times 110 \times 110 = 1331000$ times larger than the Object.

13. If the Lens, inſtead of 1 Inch, were but $\frac{1}{2}$ an Inch focal Diſtance, then would the Diameter of the Image be twice as large, or 220 times larger than the Object; and the Superficies 4 times larger, *viz.* $4 \times 12100 = 48400$; and the Solidity 8 times larger, *viz.* $8 \times 1331000 = 10648000$, that is, above 10 Millions of times larger than the Object.

14. Once more; for very ſmall Objects we may uſe a Lens $\frac{1}{4}$ of an Inch focal Diſtance, and then the Image at the ſame Diſtance as before will be in Diameter $4 \times 110 = 440$ times larger than the Object; in Superficies, $16 \times 12100 = 193600$ times larger; and in Solidity, $64 \times 1331000 = 85184000$ times larger; that is, any ſolid ſmall Object will at the Diſtance of 9 Feet 2 Inches, by means of a Lens $\frac{1}{4}$ Inch focal Diſtance, be magnified above 85 Millions of times.

15. Or more directly thus: Let the focal Diſtance of the Double Convex *m n* be $\frac{1}{4} = r$, and let the Diſtance at which the Image is formed be 12 Feet or 144

Inches $= f$; then $\frac{rf}{f-r} = d = 0{,}2504$, which therefore may be taken for $\frac{1}{4}$ of an Inch; conſequently the Diſtance of the Image is 576 times the Diſtance of the Object from the Lens, and ſo much larger will it be in Diameter, and in Surface it will be $576 \times 576 = 331776$ times larger, and in Solidity it will be $576 \times 576 \times 576 = 191102976$ times larger: Or, a ſmall Blood-Globule, or other ſolid Particle, will be magnified above 191 Millions of times; an Effect prodigious, and incredible to thoſe who are not converſant with Glaſſes, or underſtand not the Rules of *Optics*.

16. If the linear Dimenſions of the Image be nicely taken by a By-Stander with a graduated Scale of equal Parts, the Dimenſion of the Object will be known of courſe from the Diſtances of the Image and Object from the Lens; and in exceeding ſmall Objects, ſuch as the Pores of Cork, the Particles of Blood, *Animalcula in Semine*, &c. there is no other Way of meaſuring them ſo well: And thus the *Solar Microſcope* becomes a *Micrometer* in the laſt Degree of poſſible Menſuration.

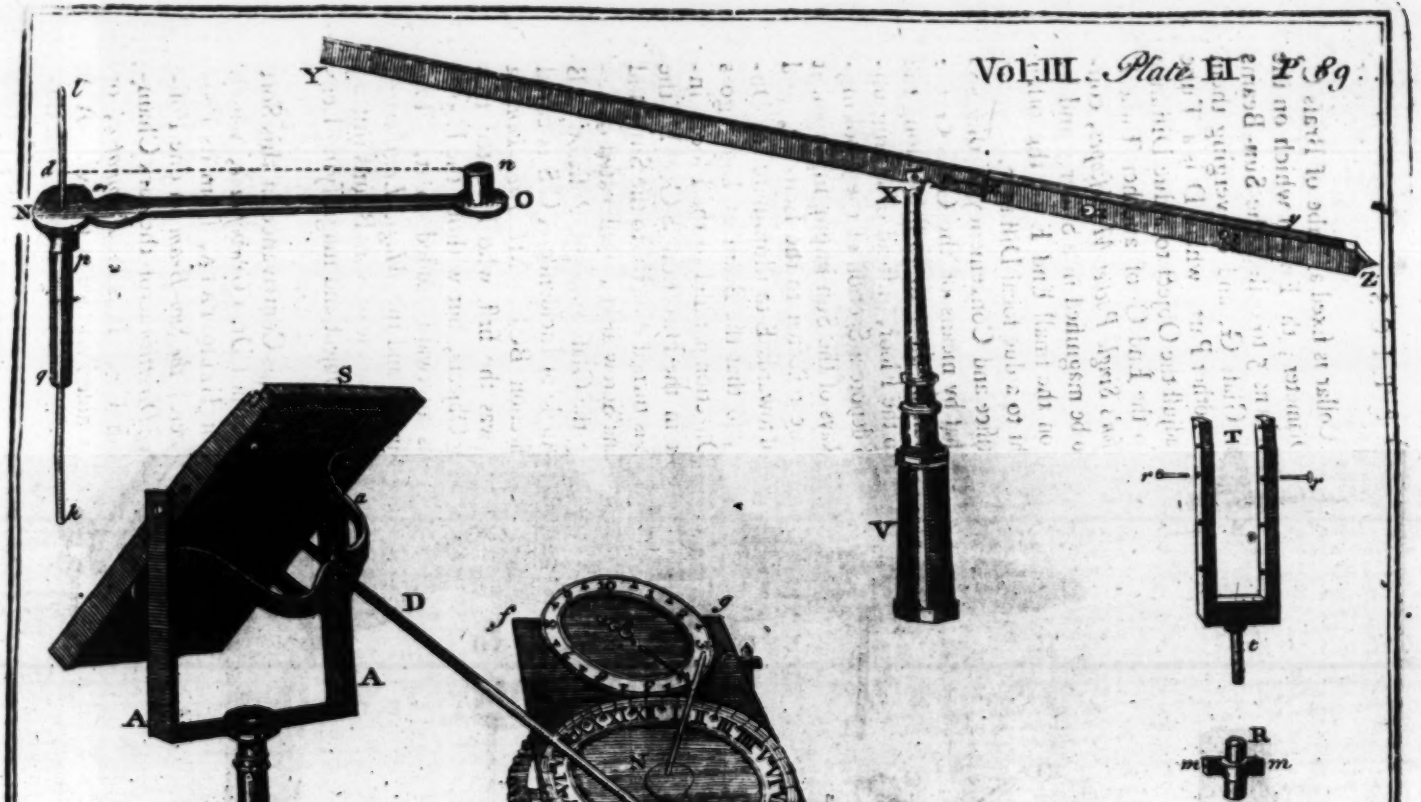
17. The Form of this Inſtrument, as it has been hitherto deſcribed, is that which I have contrived for my own Uſe, and for theirs who regard more the general Convenience than the Grandeur of an *Apparatus*. However, that thoſe of a different Taſte may be gratified, the common Form is to be very much commended for their Uſe; of which it will be ſufficient to give a bare Deſcription, illuſtrated by a Print.

Plate I. Fig. 1.

18. This Inſtrument conſiſts of ſeveral Parts, *viz.* A, a ſquare Frame of Mahogany to be fixed to the Shutter of a Window by means of the Screws 1, 1. To this Frame is applied a circular Collar B of the ſame Wood, with a Groove on its Periphery on the Outſide, denoted by 2, 3. This Collar is connected by a Cat-Gut to the Pulley 4 on the upper Part, which is turned round by the Pin 5 within. On one Part of the Collar, on the Outſide, is faſtened by Hinges a Looking-Glaſs G in a proper Frame, to which is fixed the jointed Wire 6, 7; by which means, and the Screw H 8, it may be made to ſtand in an Angle more or leſs inclined to the Frame.

In

O P T I C S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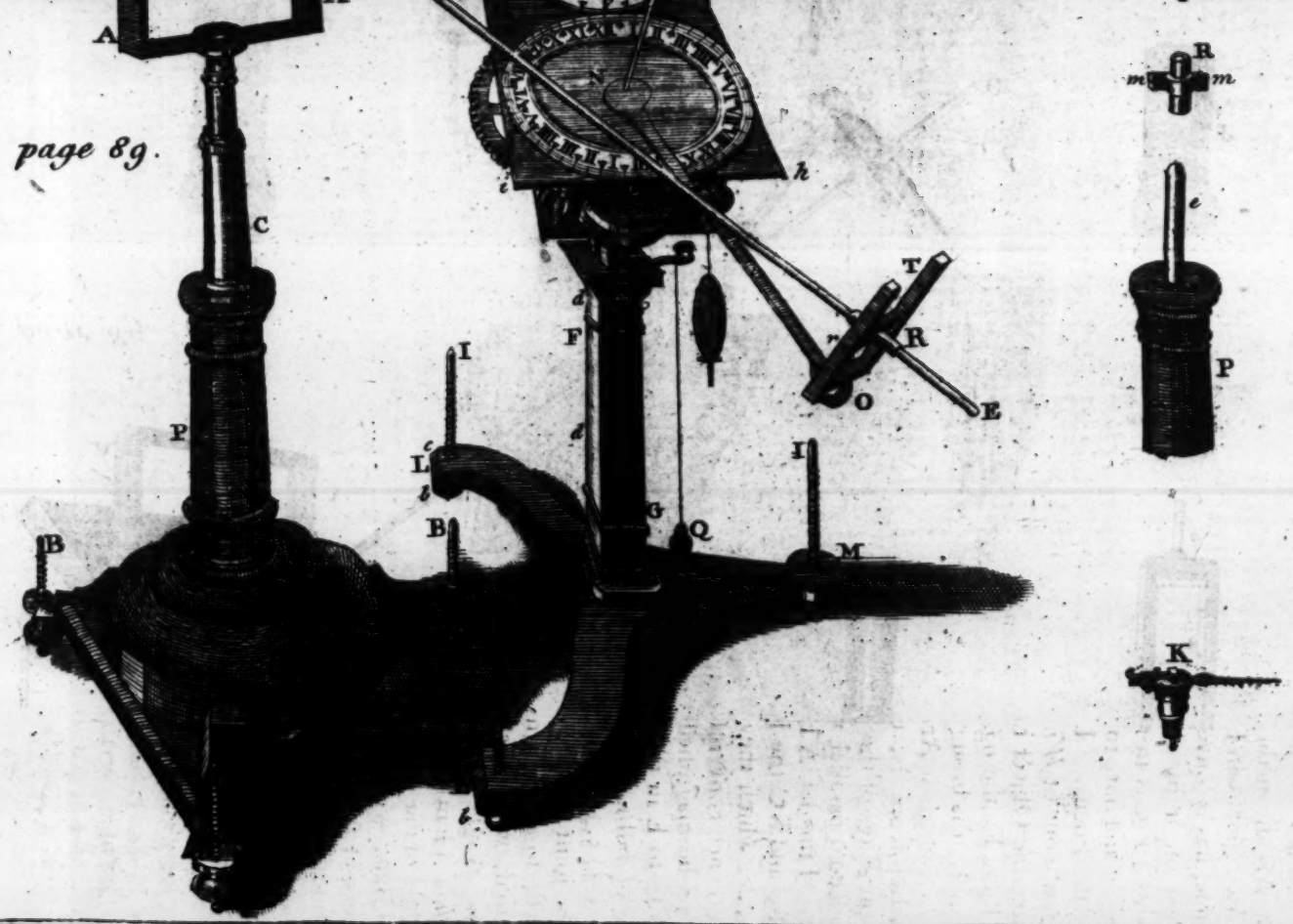
page 89.



In the Middle of the Collar is fixed a Tube of Braſs C, near two Inches in Diameter; the End of which on the Outſide, has a convex Lens 5 to collect the Sun-Beams thrown on it by the Glaſs G, and converging them towards a Focus in the other Part, where D is a Tube ſliding in and out, to adjuſt the Object to a due Diſtance from the Focus. To the End G of another Tube F is ſcrew'd one of *Wilſon's Single Pocket Microſcopes*, containing the Object to be magnified in a Slider; and by the Tube F, ſliding on the ſmall End E of the other Tube D, it is brought to a due focal Diſtance.

19. The great Artifice and Conveniency of this Solar Microſcope is, that by means of the Glaſs G the oblique Rays of the Sun are made to go ſtrait along the dark Room parallel to the Floor, inſtead of falling upon it. Thus let A B denote a Section of the Looking-Glaſs, and S C the Rays of the Sun impinging upon it at C, by which they are reflected to the Lens D, and from thence converged towards E to illuminate the Object to be magnified; ſo that the Beam of Light goes from C to E in the Direction parallel to the Floor, inſtead of falling on it in the Direction S G. By the Pulley 4, 5, the Glaſs is turned directly to the Sun, and by the jointed Wire and Screw at H it is elevated or depreſs'd, ſo as to bring the Glaſs into the Poſition A B required, where the Angle of Incidence A C S is equal to the Angle of Reflection BCE. Mr. *Liburkun*, a *Pruſſian* Gentleman, was the firſt who invented this Method of magnifying Objects, but without the Looking-Glaſs, which was afterwards added to it. The Theory of this Contrivance and the *Magic Lanthorn* is the ſame; only here we make uſe of Sun-Beams inſtead of Candle-Light, and the Object and magnifying Lens of the ſmalleſt Size.

20. Another moſt egregious Contrivance of this Sort we have from the late learned Dr. *s'Graveſande*, which he calls by the Name of HELIOSTATA, from its Property of *fixing* (as it were) *the Sun-Beam* in one Poſition, *viz.* in an *horizontal Direction* acroſs the dark Chamber all the while it is in Uſe. It is an *Automaton*, or Piece of Clock-work, whoſe Parts are as follow. A A is a Frame in which a metalline Speculum S is ſuſ- Plate LI.

pended, moveable about its Axis by means of two ſmall Screws at *a a*. This Frame is fixed to the Piece C, which being hollow is moveable upon the cylindric Shaft P about the Iron Pin *e*. (See the Part by itſelf.) This Pillar P is fixed to a triangular Baſe or Foot ſet perpendicular by the three Screws B, B, B.

21. On the Back-part of the Speculum is fixed a long cylindric Wire or Tail D, in a perpendicular Poſition. By this it is connected to the ſecond Part of the *Helioſtata*, which is a common Thirty-Hour Clock, repreſented at H; the Plane of which Clock is parallel to that of the Equator in any given Place. This Clock is ſuſtained on the Column F G, in which it is moveable up and down by a thin *Lamina* or Plate that enters it as a Caſe, and fixed to a proper Height by the Screws *d*, *d*, at the Side. The Whole is truly adjuſted to a perpendicular Situation by means of the three Screws I, I, I, in the Tripod L L M, and the Plummet Q, whoſe *Cuſpis* muſt anſwer to the Point *o* beneath.

22. The Axis of the Wheel, which moves the Index N O over the Hour-Circle, is ſomewhat large, and perforated with a cylindric Cavity verging a little to a conical Figure; and receives the Shank *p q* of the ſaid Index N O very cloſe and tight, that by its Motion the Index may be carried round. In the Extremity O of the Index is a ſmall cylindric Piece *n*, with a cylindric Perforation to receive the Tail *s* of the Fork T, yet ſo as to admit a free Motion therein. In each Side of the Fork are ſeveral Holes exactly oppoſite to each other, in which go the Screws *r*, *r*, upon whoſe ſmooth cylindric Ends moves the tubular Piece R on its Auricles *m*, *m*.

23. When the Machine is to be fixed for Uſe, another Part is made uſe of to adjuſt it; which is call'd the *Poſitor*, and is denoted by the Letters V X Y Z. The Cylinder C is removed with the Speculum from the Foot P, and the Braſs Column V X put on in its ſtead, and adheres more ſtrictly to the Pin *e*, that it may keep its Poſition while the Machine is conſtituted.

24. On the Top of the Column, about X as a Centre, moves the Lever Y Z, ſo that it may be any how inclined to the Horizon, and keep its Poſition.

The

The Arm Y X may be of any Length at Pleaſure, but the Arm Y Z is of a peculiar Conſtruction, and of a determinate Length. To this Arm, which extends no farther than *y*, is adapted a Sliding-Piece Z *x* ſharp-pointed at Z. By this the Arm X Z is determined to a given Length, the Piece Z *x* being fixed by the Screws *z z*.

25. Upon this Arm is drawn the ſhort Line *v x*, by which it may be lengthened in the Whole, and is $\frac{8}{100}$ of the whole Length X Z when ſhorteſt. The Reaſon is, this Arm is always to increaſe and decreaſe in Proportion to the Secant of the Sun's Declination to the Radius X Z when ſhorteſt; but the Radius is to the Secant of 23° 30′ (the Sun's greateſt Declination) as 10000000 to 10904411, or as 100 to 109.

26. Now the Reaſon of this Conſtruction of the Arm X Z is to find for any given Day the Diſtance of the Centre of the Speculum S from the Top *l* of the Style *l* N, which muſt ever be equal to the Secant of the Sun's Declination; for it muſt always be equal to the Diſtance of the Top of the ſaid Style *l* from the Centre of the Cylinder R in the Fork T, and that is ever equal to the ſaid Secant of Declination.

27. For ſince the Style *l* N and the Fork T are in a Poſition parallel to each other, therefore the middle Hole in the Sides of the Fork being (as they muſt be) of the ſame Height above the End of the Index O as is the Height of the Style N T, 'tis evident that on an equinoctial Day the Sun's Rays will paſs directly through the Perforation of the Piece R, if it be put in a Poſition parallel to the Plane of the Ecliptic, or that of the Clock; and alſo that the Top of the Shadow of the ſaid Style will fall exactly on the ſaid Hole.

28. In this Caſe the Top of the Style is at the leaſt Diſtance from the central Point of R, and therefore may be repreſented by *Radius*, while in any other Poſition above or below, the Diſtance will increaſe in Proportion to the Secant of the Angle which the Rays make with this firſt or middle Ray, that paſs by the Top of the Style, and through the Hole R.

29. Now it may be demonſtrated, that on any Day of the Year, if the Clock and its Pedeſtal be ſo fixed that

that the Line of XII be exactly in the Meridian, and that the Poſition of R in the Fork be ſuch that the Sun's Rays go directly through it, and the Shadow of the Style's Top fall juſt upon the Hole; moreover if the Diſtance of the Centre of the Speculum S from the Top of the Style *l* be made equal (by the *Poſitor*) to the Diſtance of the central Point of R therefrom; and laſtly, the Tail of the Speculum D E paſſing through R; if then the Clock be put into Motion, the Index N O ſhall carry about the Tail of the Speculum in ſuch a Manner, that at all Times of that Day when the Sun can come upon the Speculum it will reflect the Rays conſtantly in one and the ſame Poſition and Direction all the time without Variation.

30. The Machine thus conſtituted is placed in a Box or Caſe, and ſet in a Window with one Side open, expoſed to the Sun, and all the other Parts cloſe; ſo that when the Room is made dark, and the Solar Microſcope fixed to the Forepart of the Box in which the *Helioſtata* is placed, juſt againſt the Centre of the Speculum to receive the reflected horizontal Beam, all the Experiments of the darken'd Room are then performed as uſual. This is a very ingenious Conſtruction of a *Solar-Microſcope Apparatus*, and full of Art, but, I fear, too expenſive and troubleſome for common Uſe. However, 'tis eaſy to ſee that this Machine is capable of being greatly reduced; for it may be made to anſwer the End very well without a Clock; alſo the Speculum may be Glaſs inſtead of Metal, and all fix'd on one Foot or Pedeſtal: But this I leave to the Ingenuity of the Mechanical Reader.

LECTURE XI.

Of ASTRONOMY; *and the Uſe of the* ORRERY *and* COMETARIUM.

Of the UNIVERSE; *an* INFINITY *of* SYSTEMS; *of the* PTOLOMAIC SYSTEM; *the* TYCHONIC SYSTEM; *of the* COPERNICAN *or* SOLAR SYSTEM *of the World. The* Extent *and* Conſtituent PARTS *thereof.* ARGUMENTS *for the Truth thereof.* DEMONSTRATIONS *of its Truth. Of the* SUN; *the* PRIMARY PLANETS; *the* Secondary Planets, *or* MOONS. *The* COMETS. *Of the* Magnitude, Motion, Maculæ, *&c. of the* SUN. *Of the* Number, Order, Magnitude, Diſtances, *&c. of the* PLANETS; *their Periods*; *of the* Nodes, Inclination, *and* Aphelia *of their* ORBITS. *Of the* MOON, *its* Phaſes, Period, Diſtance, Magnitude, *and* Light. *Of the* SATELLITES *or* Moons *of* Jupiter *and* Saturn. *Of* Saturn's RING. *The* MATHEMATICAL THEORY *of the* CELESTIAL MOTION, *with* CALCULATIONS *and* EXAMPLES.

EXAMPLES. *Of the* ORRERY: *an hiſtorical Account of the* Invention *and* Improvements *thereof. A Deſcription of the* ARMILLARY SPHERE. *Of the* MOTION *of the* EARTH *about its* Axis, *and about the* Sun. *The* VICISSITUDES *of the* SEASONS *explained. Of the various* LENGTHS *of* DAYS *and* NIGHTS. *The* Third Motion *of the* Earth; *the great* PLATONIC YEAR; *the* RECESSION *of the* EQUINOXES *explained. A Calculation of the hotteſt Time of the Day. The* Doctrine *of* Solar *and* Lunar ECLIPSES *fully explained, by Calculations on a* Mathematical Theory. *An Explanation of the* ASTRONOMY *of* COMETS. *A* new Method *for* Conſtruction *of their* ORBITS. Calculations *relating to the whole* THEORY *of Comets. An* Analytical Inveſtigation *of their* Elliptic Orbits. *Of their* TAILS, *and all other* Phænomena *accounted for on the* genuine Principles *of* Phyſics.

I SHALL in this Lecture endeavour to exhibit to you a *juſt and natural Idea of the Mundane or Solar Syſtem*, that is, the Syſtem of the World; conſiſting of the *Sun*; the *Primary Planets*, and their *Secondaries*, or *Moons*; the *Comets*; and the *Fixed Stars*;

Stars; according to the Hypotheſis of *Pythagoras* among the Ancients, and revived by *Copernicus:* Which Syſtem is fully proved, and eſtabliſhed on the juſteſt Reaſoning, *viz. Phyſical* and *Geometrical Concluſions*, by all our modern Aſtronomers (CXXXI).

THE

(CXXXI) 1. By the UNIVERSE we are to underſtand the whole Extent of Space, which, as it is in its own Nature every way infinite, gives us an Idea of the Infinity of the Univerſe, which can therefore be only in Part comprehended by us: And that Part of the Univerſe which we can have any Notion of, is that which is the Subject of our Senſes; and of this the Eye preſents us with an Idea of a vaſt extended Proſpect, and the Appearance of various Sorts of Bodies diſſeminated through the ſame.

2. The infinite Abyſs of Space, which the *Greeks* called the τὸ πᾶν, the *Latins* the *Inane*, and we the *Univerſe*, does undoubtedly comprehend an Infinity of Syſtems of moving Bodies round one very large central one, which the *Romans* called *Sol*, and we the *Sun*. This Collection of Bodies is therefore properly called the SOLAR SYSTEM, and ſometimes the MUNDANE SYSTEM, from the *Latin* Word *Mundus*, the *World*.

3. That the Univerſe contains as many Solar Syſtems or Worlds as there are what we call *Fix'd Stars*, ſeems reaſonable to infer from hence, that our Sun removed to the Diſtance of a Star would appear juſt as a Star does, and all the Bodies moving about it would diſappear entirely. Now the Reaſon why they diſappear is becauſe they are opake Bodies, and too ſmall to be ſeen at ſo great a Diſtance, without an intenſe Degree of Light; whereas theirs is the weakeſt that can be, as being firſt borrowed and then reflected to the Eye.

4. But the Sun, by reaſon of his immenſe Bulk and innate Light, which is the ſtrongeſt poſſible, will be viſible

THE moſt celebrated Hypotheſes, or Syſtems of the World, are three, *viz.* (1.) The

viſible at an immenſe Diſtance; but the greater the Diſtance, the leſs bright it will appear, and of a leſſer Magnitude: And therefore every Star of every Magnitude may probably be a Sun like our own, informing a Syſtem of Planets or moving Bodies, each of which may be inhabited like our Earth with various Kinds of Animals, and ſtored with vegetable and other Subſtances.

5. In this View of the Univerſe, an auguſt Idea ariſes in the Mind, and worthy of the Infinite and Wiſe Author of Nature, who can never be ſuppoſed to have created ſo many glorious Orbs to anſwer ſo trifling a Purpoſe as the twinkling to Mortals by Night now and then; beſides that the far greateſt Part of the Stars are never ſeen by us at all, as will be farther ſhewn when we come to treat of thoſe celeſtial Bodies.

6. When therefore *Moſes* tells us, that *in the Beginning God created the Heavens and the Earth*, it is to be underſtood in a limited Senſe, and to mean only the *Making*, or rather *New-making*, of our Terraqueous Globe; for 'tis expreſsly ſaid that the Earth in its firſt State was a *Chaos*, (in *Hebrew* תהו ובהו *Shapeleſs and Void*) which probably might be only the Ruins of a pre-exiſtent Globe inhabited by rational Creatures in the ſame manner as ſince its Renovation. And though it be ſaid, *God made two great Lights*, the *Sun* and the *Moon*, it does not follow they had no Exiſtence before that Time, any more than it does that the Stars had not, which he is ſaid to have *made alſo*.

7. Now if the Stars had no Exiſtence before the *Moſaic* Creation, then were there no other Syſtems of Worlds before our own; then muſt all the Infinity of Space have been one eternal abſolute *Inane* or *Empty Space* till that Time, and God who *made the Worlds* muſt be ſuppoſed to have made them all at once: Which Suppoſitions are too extravagant and unreaſonable, and therefore cannot be the Senſe of that Paſſage of Scripture; which I think

ASTRONOMY

Vol. III. *Plate* LII. *P.* 97.

The PTOLOMAIC SYSTEM

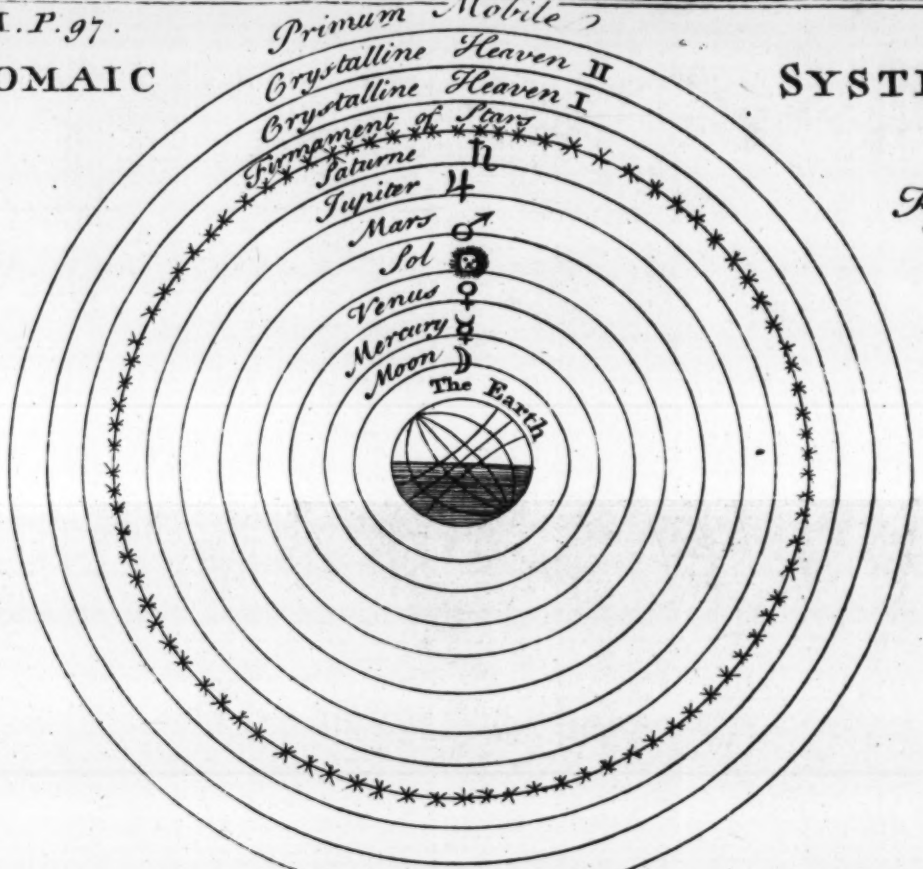
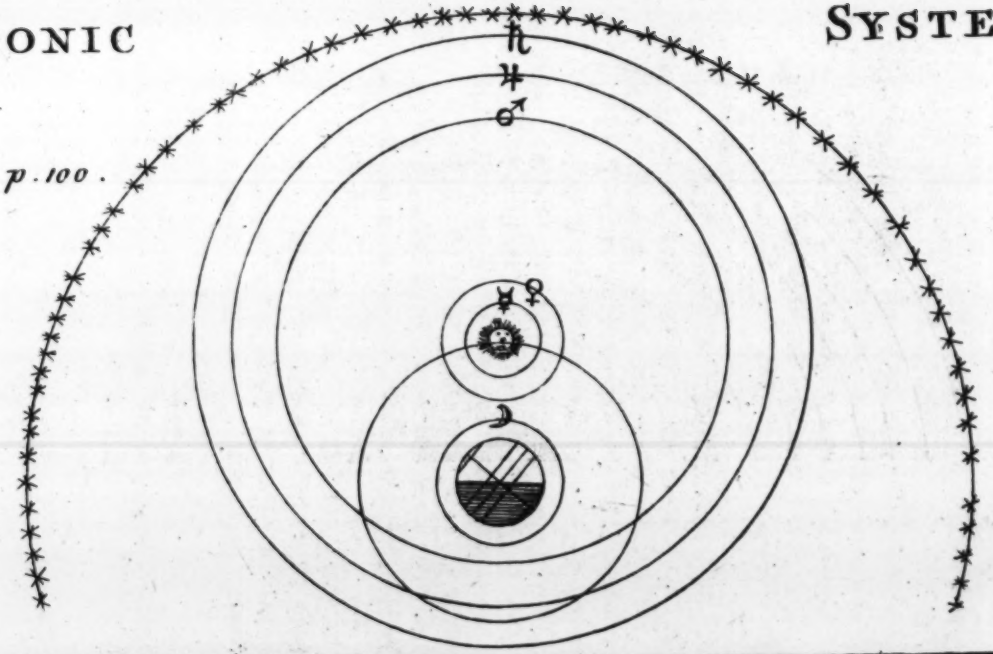


Fig. 1. p. 97.

TYCHONIC SYSTEM

Fig. 2. p. 100.



The *Ptolomean*, invented by *Ptolomy*, an ancient *Egyptian* Philoſopher; which aſſigns ſuch Poſitions and Motions to the heavenly Bodies, as they appear to the Senſes to have. (2.) The *Tychonic Syſtem*, or that of the noble *Daniſh* Philoſopher, *Tycho Brahe*. (3.) The *Pythagorean*, *Copernican*, or *Solar Syſtem*, above-mentioned. Of all which in Order (CXXXII).

THE

I think can be no more than this, that when God had formed the Earth into an habitable Globe, he gave it ſuch a Poſition and Motion about the Sun, and about its own Axis, as ſhould cauſe an agreeable Variety in the Length of Days and Nights, and in the Temperature of the Seaſons of the Year: All which will be ſhewn to have their Exiſtence and Diſtinction reſulting from theſe Principles, and no other, in the Sequel of the Notes to this *Lecture*.

(CXXXII) 1. I have thought it expedient to illuſtrate the Idea of the three remarkable Syſtems of the World above-mentioned by proper Diagrams; in the Firſt of which you view the Diſpoſition of the Heavenly Bodies according to the Hypotheſis of *Claudius Ptolomæus*, a famous Mathematician and Aſtronomer of *Peluſium* in *Egypt*, who lived in the firſt Part of the ſecond Century after *Chriſt*. Pl. LII. Fig. 1.

2. This was firſt invented and adhered to chiefly becauſe it ſeemed to correſpond with the ſenſible Appearances of the Celeſtial Motions. They took it for granted that the Motions which thoſe Bodies appeared to have were ſuch as they truly and really performed; and not dreaming of any Motion in the Earth, nor being apprized of the Diſtinction of *abſolute*, *relative*, or *apparent Motion*, they could not make a proper Judgment of ſuch Matters, but were under a Neceſſity of being mi

Pl. LII. Fig. 1. THE *Ptolomean Syſtem* ſuppoſes the Earth immoveably fixed in the Centre, not of the *World*

led by their very Senſes, for want of proper Aſſiſtance which After-Ages produced.

3. 'Tis eaſy to obſerve they had no Notion of any other Syſtem but our own, nor of any other World but the Earth on which we live. They thought nothing leſs than that all Things were made for the Uſe of Man; that all the Stars were contained in one concave Sphere, and therefore at an equal Diſtance from the Earth; and that the *Primum Mobile* was circumſcribed by the *Cœlum Empireum* of a cubic Form, which they ſuppoſed to be the *Heavens*, or bliſsful Abode of departed Souls.

4. It would ſcarce have been worth while to have ſaid ſo much about ſo abſurd an Hypotheſis, (as this is now well known to be) were it not that there are ſtill numerous Retainers thereto, who endeavour very zealouſly to defend the ſame, and that for two Reaſons principally, *viz.* becauſe the Earth is apparently fixed in the Centre of the World, and the Sun and Stars move about it daily; and alſo becauſe the Scripture aſſerts the Stability of the Earth, the Motion of the Sun, *&c.*

5. Theſe two Arguments merit no particular Anſwer. It is ſufficient, with reſpect to the firſt, to ſay, that we are aſſured Things may (yea muſt) appear to be, in many caſes, what they really are not, yea to have ſuch Affections and Properties as are abſolutely contrary to what they really poſſeſs. Thus a Perſon ſitting in the Cabin of a Ship under Sail, will, by looking out at the Window, ſee an apparent Motion of the Houſes, the Trees, *&c.* on the Strand the contrary way, but will perceive no Motion at all in the Ship. Alſo a Perſon ſitting in a Wind-Mill, if the Mill be turned about, he will ſee an apparent Motion of the upright Poſt the contrary Way, but will not perceive any in the Mill itſelf.

World only, but of the *Univerſe*; and that the *Sun*, the *Moon*, the *Planets*, and *Stars*, all

6. All thoſe Caſes are exactly parallel to that of the Earth, (the Reaſon of which has been ſhewn in the former Part of this Work; *Annot.* XX.) and it is as rational to aſſert the Ship and the Mill are really quieſcent, and the other Bodies poſitively in Motion; as it is to inſiſt on the Motion of the Sun, and the Earth's being at Reſt in the Centre.

7. As to the Scripture, as it was never intended for an Inſtitution of Aſtronomy or Philoſophy, ſo nothing is to be underſtood as ſtrictly or poſitively aſſerted in relation thereto, but as ſpoken only agreeably to the common Phraſe or vulgar Notion of Things. And thus Sir *Iſaac Newton* himſelf would always ſay, the *Sun riſes*, and the *Sun ſets*; and would have ſaid with *Joſhua*, *Sun, ſtand thou ſtill, &c.* though he well knew it was quite contrary in the Nature of the Thing.

8. How ridiculous a Thing does Popery appear to be to all rational Minds, or to thoſe who are at liberty to *think*, by inſiſting on the literal Senſe of Scripture ſo rigidly in the Expreſſion, *This is my Body!* And is it not equally abſurd to maintain that the *Earth ſtands upon Pillars*, only becauſe we read ſo in the Bible? What an aukward Shift are thoſe celebrated Mathematicians Meſſ. *Le Seur* and *Jacquier* obliged to make, in their Commentary on Sir *Iſaac*'s *Principia!* The Editor, forſooth, is here the Commentator on all thoſe Parts that relate to the Earth's Motion or *Copernican* Syſtem: And becauſe their Declaration is ſomething very ſingular in its Kind, I ſhall here give it in their own Words.

PP. LE SEUR & JACQUIER Declaratio.

Newtonus in hoc tertio libro Telluris motæ hypotheſin aſſumit. Autoris Propoſitiones aliter explicari non poterant, niſi eâdem quoque factâ hypotheſi. Hinc alienam coacti ſumus gerere perſonam; cæterum latis à ſummis Pontificibus contra Telluris Motum Decretis nos obſequi profitemur.

all moved about it from *Eaſt* to *Weſt* once in twenty-four Hours, in the Order following,

In *Engliſh* thus:

" *Newton* in this Third Book has aſſumed the Hypo-
" theſis of the Earth's Motion. The Author's Propo-
" ſitions are not to be explain'd but by making the
" ſame Hypotheſis alſo. Hence we are obliged to pro-
" ceed under a feigned Character; but in other Re-
" ſpects we profeſs ourſelves obſequious to the Decrees
" of the Popes made againſt the Motion of the Earth."

9. By this it appears how well many People underſtand the Truth, who yet dare not to profeſs it. But to conclude this Head: There is no Authority equal to that of Truth; the common Opinion, the literal Expreſſion of Scripture, the Decrees of Popes, and every thing elſe muſt give way to plain and evident Demonſtration; of which we have abundantly ſufficient for eſtabliſhing the true Syſtem of the World againſt all Oppoſition.

Pl. LII. Fig. 2.

10. The TYCHONIC SYSTEM is repreſented in the next Diagram. This had its Original from *Tycho Brahe*, a Nobleman of *Denmark*, who lived in the latter Part of the laſt Century; he built and made his Obſervations at *Uraniburg*, (i. e. *Celeſtial Tower*) in the Iſland *Weer* or *Huena*. This Philoſopher, though he approved of the *Copernican* Syſtem, yet could he not reconcile himſelf to the Motion of the Earth; and being, on the other hand, convinced the *Ptolomean* Scheme in Part could not be true, he contrived one different from either, which is repreſented by the next Diagram.

11. In this the Earth has no Motion allowed it, but the Annual and Diurnal Phænomena are ſolved by the Motion of the Sun about the Earth, as in the *Ptolomaic* Scheme; and thoſe of *Mercury* and *Venus* are ſolved by this Contrivance, though not in the ſame Manner, ſo ſimply and naturally, as in the *Copernican* Syſtem; as is eaſy to obſerve in the *Figure*.

12. After

lowing, *viz.* the *Moon*, *Mercury*, *Venus*, the *Sun*, *Mars*, *Jupiter*, *Saturn*, the *Fixed Stars*; and, above all, the Figment of their *Primum Mobile*, or the Sphere which gave Motion to all the reſt. But this was too groſs and abſurd to be received by any learned Philoſopher, after the Diſcoveries by Obſervations and Inſtruments which acquaint us with divers Phænomena of the heavenly Bodies, altogether inconſiſtent with, and, in ſome Things, exactly contradictory to, ſuch an Hypotheſis; as will be ſhewn by the Arguments adduced to prove the Truth of the *Copernican Syſtem*.

THE *Tychonic Syſtem* ſuppoſed the Earth in the Centre of the World, that is, of the Firmament of Stars, and alſo of the Orbits of the Sun and Moon; but at the ſame Time it made the Sun the Centre of the Planetary Motions, *viz.* of the Orbits of *Mercury*, *Venus*, *Mars*, *Jupiter*, and *Saturn*. Thus Pl. LII. Fig. 2.

12. After this Scheme had been propoſed ſome time, it received a Correction by allowing the Earth a Motion about its Axis, to account for the Diurnal Phænomena of the Heavens; and ſo this came to be called the *Semi-Tychonic Syſtem*. But this was ſtill wide of the Truth, and encumbered with ſuch Hypotheſes as the true Mathematician and genuine Philoſopher could never reliſh. Therefore both theſe Syſtems, and all others, at length gave way to the True Solar Syſtem, to be more fully deſcribed in the following Notes.

Thus the Sun, with all its Planets, was made to revolve about the Earth once a Year, to ſolve the *Phænomena* ariſing from the *annual Motion*; and the Earth about its Axis from Weſt to Eaſt once in 24 Hours, to account for thoſe of the *diurnal Motion*. But this *Hypotheſis* is ſo monſtrouſly abſurd, and contrary to the great Simplicity of Nature, and in ſome reſpects even contradictory to Appearances, that it obtained but little Credit, and ſoon gave way to

Pl. LIII. THE *Copernican Syſtem* of the World, which ſuppoſes the Sun to poſſeſs the central Part; and that about it revolve the *Planets* and Comets in different Periods of Time, and at different Diſtances therefrom, in the Order following, *viz.* (CXXXIII).

I. MER-

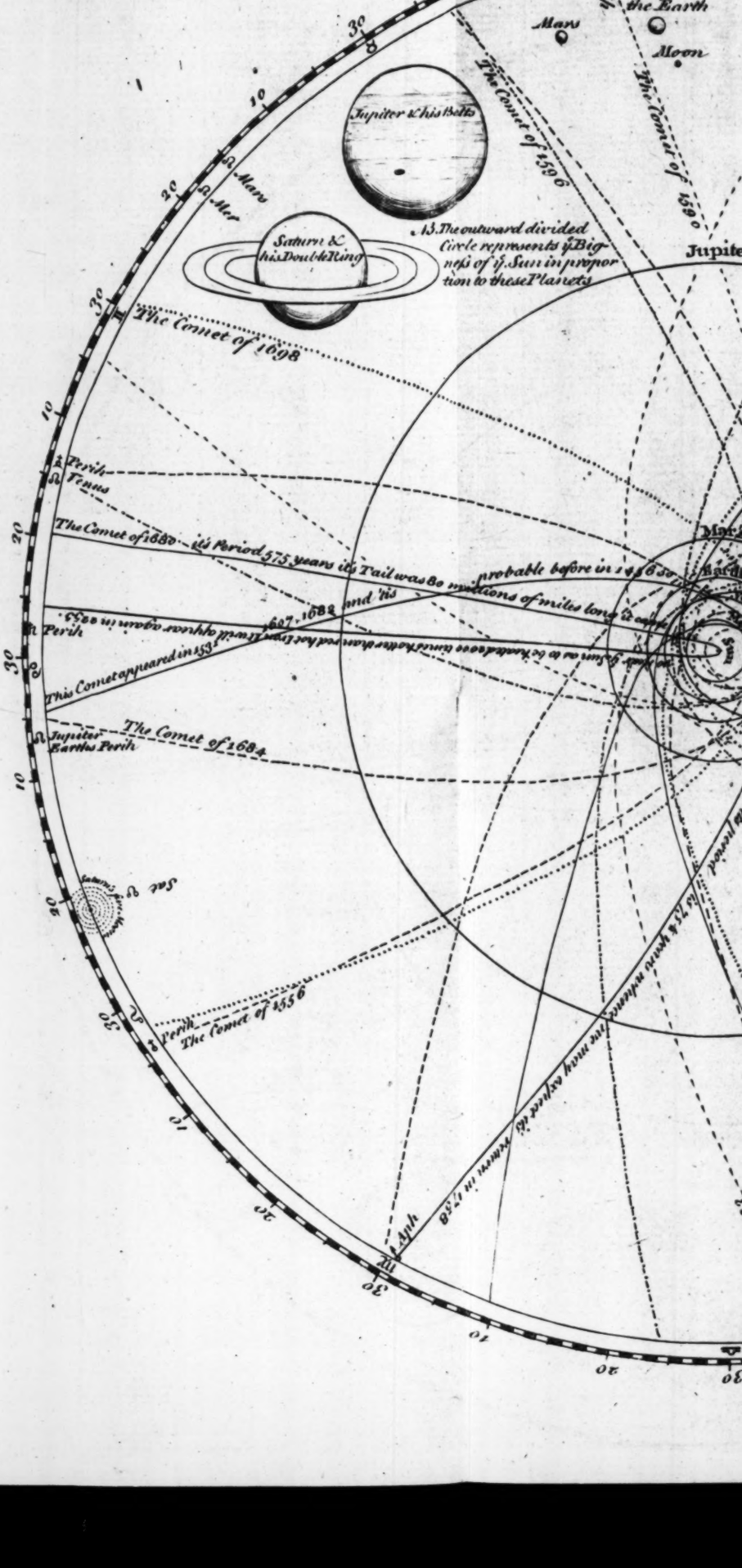
(CXXXIII) 1. The SOLAR SYSTEM, as it is now taught, was in ſome part invented by the Ancients, perhaps by *Pythagoras* himſelf; for though *Diogenes Laertius* in writing his Life ſays no more of him than *his aſſerting the Antipodes of the Earth*, yet *Ariſtotle* tells us that the Sect of the *Pythagoreans* taught *that the Earth was carried about the Centre*, (viz. the Sun) *among the Stars*, (i. e. the Planets) *and by turning about* (its Axis) *cauſed Day and Night*. Hence it came to be called the PYTHAGOREAN HYPOTHESIS or SYSTEM *of the World*.

2. But ſome of theſe, 'tis ſaid, allowed only one Motion of the Earth, *viz.* the *diurnal*; while others, as *Philolaus*, *Ariſtarchus* the *Samian*, *Plato* in his advanced Age, alſo *Seleucus* the Mathematician, and others, maintained

Vol. III. Plate LIII.

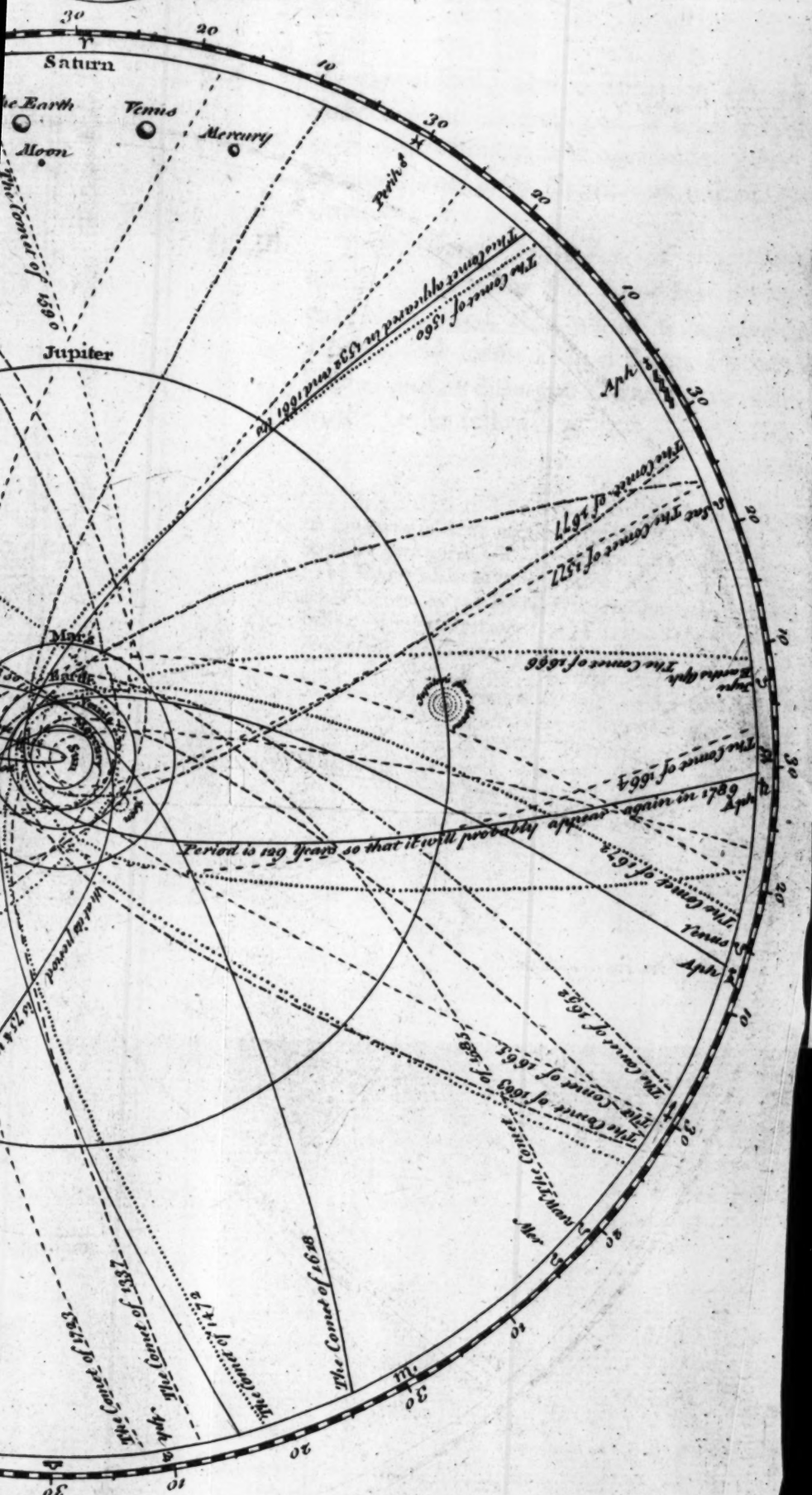
THE COPERNIC

SYST



ICAN OR SOLAR,

STEM



E. Bowen sculp.

I. MERCURY, at the Diſtance of about 32 Millions of Miles, revolves about the Sun

maintained the Earth had two Motions, the *diurnal* about its Axis, and the *annual Motion* about the Sun. Hence it is alſo called the PHILOLAIC SYSTEM.

3. But the Aſtronomy of theſe early Ages died in its Infancy, and was buried in Oblivion for many Ages after; till at Length it began to be revived by Cardinal *Cuſa*, who wrote in Defence of it, but to no great Purpoſe, till after him it was eſpouſed by the celebrated *Nicholas Copernicus*, a Canon of *Thorn* in *Poliſh Pruſſia*, where he was born *A. D.* 1473. This Gentleman undertook to examine it thoroughly, and explained by it the Motions and Phænomena of the Heavenly Bodies ſo well to the Satisfaction of the Learned, that he was generally followed therein by the principal Aſtronomers of that and the following Age; as *Rheticus*, *Rothmannus*, *Lanſbergius*, *Schikardus*, *Kepplerus*, *Galileo*, and numberleſs others. From this Time it was called the COPERNICAN SYSTEM.

4. After this aroſe divers great Men, as *Gaſſendus*, *Hevelius*, *Bullialdus*, *Ricciolus*, the two *Caſſini's*, Mr. *Hugens*, *Horrox*, Biſhop *Ward*, Mr. *Flamſteed*, Dr. *Halley*, Dr. *Gregory*, Dr. *Keil*, and, above all, that ſuperlative Genius Sir *Iſaac Newton*; who all of them, with the greateſt Pains and Diligence, applied themſelves to make Obſervations, to invent Inſtruments, and to inveſtigate the Phyſical Cauſes of Celeſtial Phænomena; in which they ſo happily ſucceeded, eſpecially the laſt great Man, that the Nature, Extent, Order, and Conſtitution of all and every Part of the Solar Syſtem, both of Planets and Comets, became ſo well defined, ſtated and eſtabliſhed, as to admit of no Conteſt or Scruple, with any Man properly qualified to underſtand it; and which therefore ought for the future to be called the NEWTONIAN SYSTEM *of the World*. Pl. LIII.

5. This SYSTEM (no longer now to be called an *Hypotheſis*) is repreſented in a Plate by itſelf, with the Orbits of all the Planets and Comets (hitherto deter-

Sun in the Space of 87 Days, 23 Hours, and 16 Minutes.

II. VENUS,

mined) and at their proper Diſtances from the Sun, repreſented by the central Point; it being impoſſible to repreſent, either by an Inſtrument or Diagram, the true Proportion both of Magnitude and Diſtances of the Sun and Planets, as will appear by what follows.

6. For it muſt be allowed, that to render any Machine or Delineation uſeful, the leaſt Part ought to be viſible; and one cannot well aſſign a leſs Bulk for the Globe of the Moon, than what is here repreſented in this Plate; which being fixed upon, the Magnitudes of the Planets *Mercury*, *Venus*, the *Earth*, *Mars*, *Jupiter*, and *Saturn* and its Ring, muſt be ſuch as are ſhewn under the reſpective Names in the Plate; and with reſpect to theſe the Sun's Bulk or Face will be repreſented by the exterior Circle of the Diagram, which here repreſents the Ecliptic in the Heavens, and is nearly 9 Inches in Diameter.

7. Now the Diameter of the Earth in this Scheme is $\frac{1}{10}$ of an Inch, its Semidiameter is therefore $\frac{1}{20}$; and the Diſtance of the Earth from the Sun's Centre is about 20000 Semidiameters. But $20000 \times \frac{1}{20} = 1000$ Inches $= 83\frac{1}{3}$ Feet; and ſince the Diſtance of *Saturn* is near ten times as great, it is evident *the Extent or Diameter of a Machine to exhibit the ſeveral Parts of the Solar Syſtem in their due Proportion of Diſtances and Magnitudes (though no bigger than thoſe here aſſign'd) will be at leaſt* 1600 *Feet, or more than a Quarter of a Mile: And conſequently the Circumference of* Saturn's *Orbit will meaſure very near a Mile.*

8. In a much leſs Compaſs indeed the Diſtances might be repreſented very well in Proportion, but the reſpective Magnitudes can no otherwiſe be ſhewn than by ſuch Globes or graphical Delineations as is the Plate of the Diagram under Conſideration. Another Thing which cannot be properly repreſented in ſuch a Plate is the Inclination of any Planetary Orbit to the Plane of the Ecliptic, eſpecially the Orbits of the Comets, of

whoſe

Vol. III. *Plate* LIV. *P.* 105.

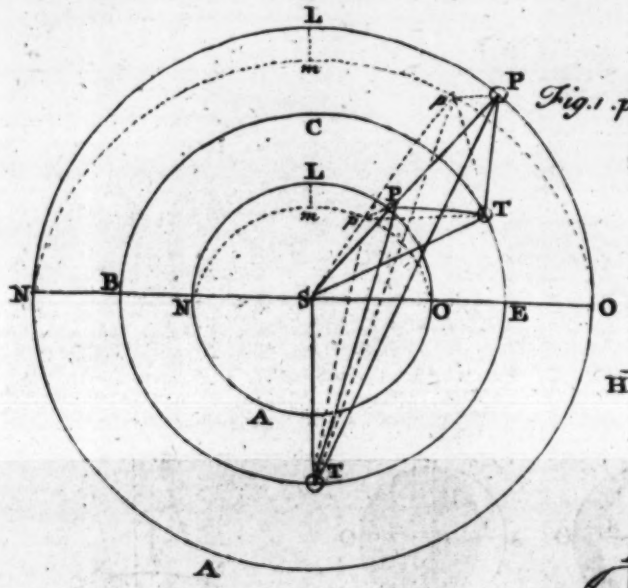


Fig. 1. p. 106.

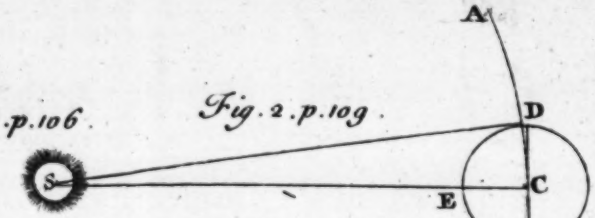


Fig. 2. p. 109.

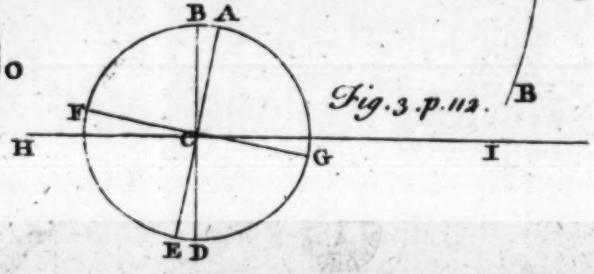


Fig. 3. p. 112.

Fig. 4. p. 115.

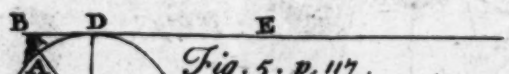


Fig. 5. p. 117.

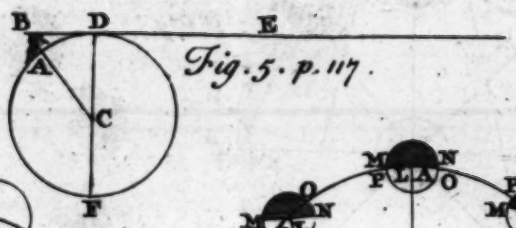
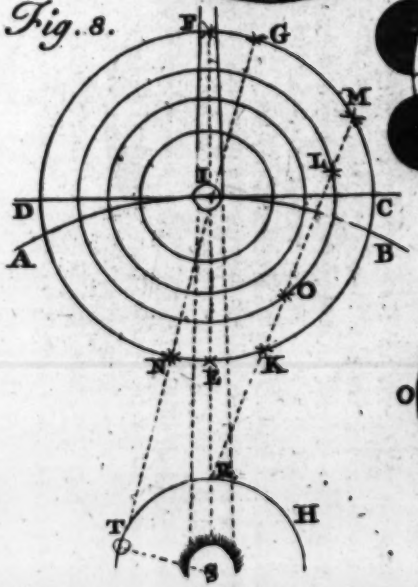


Fig. 5. p. 117.

Fig. 8.



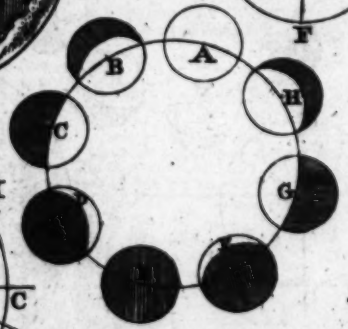


Fig. 7.
p. 121.

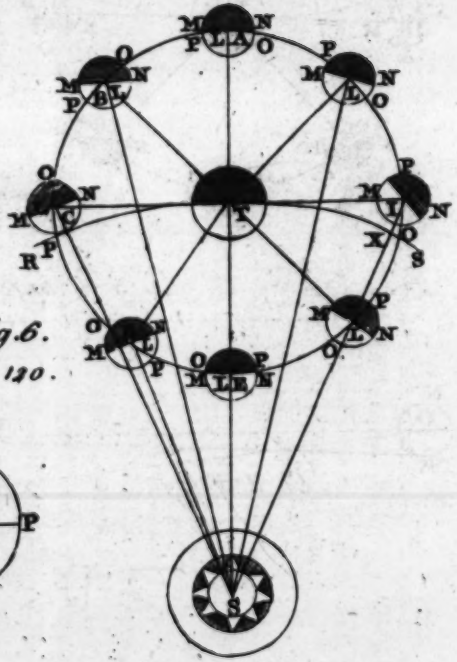


Fig. 6.
p. 120.

II. VENUS, at the Diſtance of 59 Millions of Miles, in 224 Days, 16 Hours, 49 Minutes.

III. THE EARTH, at the Diſtance of about 82 Millions of Miles, in 365 Days, 6 Hours, 9 Minutes, or *Sydereal* Year.

IV. MARS, at the Diſtance of 123 Millions of Miles, in 686 Days, 23 Hours, 27 Minutes, or 1 Year, 321 Days, 17 Hours, and 18 Minutes.

V. JUPITER, at the Diſtance of 424 Millions of Miles, in 4332 Days, 12 Hours, 20 Minutes, or almoſt 12 Years.

VI. SATURN, at the Diſtance of 777 Millions of Miles, in 10759 Days, 6 Hours, 36 Minutes, or nearly 30 Years,

VII. THE COMETS, in various and vaſtly eccentric Orbits, revolve about the Sun in different Situations and Periods of Time, as repreſented in the Scheme of Mr. *Whiſton*'s Solar Syſtem (CXXXIV).

whoſe Poſitions we can by no means this way get any Idea. The ſeveral Parts therefore of the *Solar Syſtem* muſt be explained and illuſtrated by diſtinct Theories, with proper Figures adapted to each: And this will be the Subject of the following Notes.

(CXXXIV) 1. The Periodical Times of the primary Planets, Sir *Iſaac Newton* ſtated in Days and Decimal Parts of a Day, as follows:

☿	♀	⊕	♂	♃
87,9692.	224,6176.	365,2565.	686,9785.	4332,514

♄
10759,275.

2. The

2. The mean Distances of the Planets from the Sun are thus stated by Sir *Isaac*:

According to *Kepler*,

☿	♀	⊕	♂	♃	♄
38806.	72400.	100000.	152350.	519650.	951000.

According to *Bullialdus*,

38585.	72398.	100000.	152350.	522520.	954198.

According to the Periodical Times,

38710.	72333.	100000.	152369.	520096.	954006.

3. Before we can shew how the Periodical Times and Distances of the Planets are found, it will be necessary to premise the following Things, viz. *The Orbit of a Planet is not in the Plane of the Ecliptic.* Thus let A N L O be the Orbit of a Planet P, and let B C E T be the Earth's Orbit, which is in the Plane of the Ecliptic; then will one half of the Planet's Orbit lie above the Plane, as N L O, and the other Half N A O below it.

Plate LIV. Fig. 1.

4. *The two Planes, therefore, of the Planet's Orbit and of the Ecliptic will interſect one another*, which Interſection will be a Right Line, as N O; and this is called the *Line of the Nodes*, the *Nodes* being the two Points N and O, in which the Planet deſcends below, or aſcends above, the Plane of the Ecliptic; Whence O is called the *Aſcending Node*, and N the *Deſcending Node*.

5. Let the Curve N *m* O be deſcribed in the Plane of the Ecliptic perpendicular under the Half Orbit NLO; then is the Curve N *m* O ſaid to be the *Projection of the Planet's Orbit* N L O *on the Plane of the Ecliptic*, and *p* the *projected Place* of the Planet P, or its Place *reduced to the Ecliptic*.

6. The Angle L O *m* meaſures the *Inclination of the Plane of the Planet's Orbit to that of the Ecliptic*; which is alſo called the *Obliquity* thereof. The Perpendicular Diſtance P *p* is the *Latitude of the Planet* from the Plane of the Ecliptic; and L *m* is the greateſt Latitude, if L O or L N be a Quarter of a Circle. Alſo the Diſtance of the Planet from the Node, *viz.* P O, is called the *Argument of Latitude*.

7. Draw S P, S *p*, and T P, T *p*, and join S T; then is the Angle P S *p* the true Latitude ſeen from the Sun at

at S, and therefore called the *Heliocentric Latitude*; and the Angle P T *p* is the apparent Latitude, or that which is ſeen from the Earth at T, and is therefore called the *Geocentric Latitude*.

8. The true Diſtance of the Planet from the Sun and Earth is meaſured by the Lines S P and P T; but S *p* and T *p* are called the *Curtate Diſtances*. Alſo in the Triangle S *p* T the Angle S T *p* is called the *Angle of Elongation*, or Diſtance of the Planet from the Sun. The Angle S *p* T is called the *Parallactic Angle*, as being that under which the Semidiameter of the Earth's Orbit is ſeen; and the Angle *p* S T at the Sun is uſually called the *Angle of Commutation*.

9. We may now proceed to ſhew the Methods of determining the *Periodical Time* of a Planet; which may be done either by the Conjunctions or Oppoſitions of the Planet to the Sun. Thus, for Example, obſerve well the Place of *Jupiter* in the Ecliptic at his Oppoſition to the Sun, and alſo when he comes to be in Oppoſition to the Sun again; and note well the Time that lapſed between. Then ſay, *As the Arch deſcribed between the two Oppoſitions is to the whole Circumference, ſo is the Time in which that Arch was deſcribed, to the Periodical Time*, very nearly; for it will not be exactly ſo, becauſe the Motion of a Planet is not quite uniform, as moving in an Ellipſis, and not in a Circle. In the ſame manner you proceed for an inferior Planet.

10. But a more accurate Method is by obſerving nicely the Time that elapſes between the Planet's being twice ſucceſſively in the ſame Node, (which may be eaſily known, becauſe in that Part of its Orbit the Planet has no Latitude) and that will be the Periodical Time of the Planet; for in one Revolution of a Planet, the Nodes (if they move at all) will not move ſenſibly, and may therefore be eſteemed as quieſcent.

11. In order to eſtimate the Diſtances of the Planets, we proceed for *Venus* and *Mercury* in the following Manner. Let the Place of the Planet in its greateſt Elongation from the Sun be duly obſerved, the Difference between that and the Sun's Place (as ſeen from the Earth) will be the Quantity of the greateſt Elongation, or of the Angle A T S, with reſpect to the Planet

Venus

Venus in her Orbit at A. And ſince the Orbit of *Venus* is nearly circular, the Line T A will touch the Orbit in the Point A, and ſo the Angle T A S will be a Right one. Suppoſe the Angle A T S = 47 Degrees by Obſervation; then if we put the Diſtance of the Earth S T = 100000, ſay, As Radius or Sine of 90° is to the Sine of 47°, ſo is T S = 100000 to S A = 73000, nearly the Diſtance of *Venus* from the Sun.

12. In like manner may the Diſtance of *Mercury* from the Sun be determined in the Groſs, but not ſo nearly as that of *Venus*, becauſe the Orbit is much more excentric or elliptical, and therefore the Angle T R S will not be a Right one. Its Quantity therefore muſt be found from the Theory of the Motions of *Mercury* founded on Obſervations; and from thence the third Angle T S R will be known, and conſequently the Side S R, which is the Diſtance of *Mercury* from the Sun.

13. In the Superior Planets this Matter is not quite ſo eaſy; however, there are divers Methods by which it may be done, by having the Theory of the Earth known, which gives the Side S T; and by Obſervation the Angle S T P is known, which is the Difference of the Geocentric Place of the Sun and Planet; then there remains only the Angle S P T to be found, which Aſtronomers ſhew how to do ſeveral Ways; one of which is peculiar to *Jupiter*, being done by means of one of his *Satellites*, as will be ſhewn when we treat of them.

14. As I have in this Note mentioned the Inclination of the Planets Orbits to the Plane of the Ecliptic, I ſhall give the Quantity thereof for each Planet as follows;

		°	′	″
The Inclination of the Orbit of	*Mercury* is	6	59	20
	Venus —	3	23	5
	Mars —	1	52	0
	Jupiter —	1	20	0
	Saturn —	2	33	30

15. Alſo the Line of the Nodes in the ſeveral Planetary Orbits is determined; and the Place in the Ecliptic of the aſcending Node for each Planet is as follows:

For

			°	′	″
For	*Mercury* in	♉	14	42	00
	Venus —	♊	14	25	54
	Mars —	♉	18	29	54
	Jupiter —	♋	7	19	54
	Saturn —	♋	21	49	54

16. The Diſtance of the Planets from the Sun as above determined are reducible to *Engliſh* Miles, by firſt finding the Earth's Diſtance in that Meaſure; and this is done by finding the Quantity of the Sun's Parallax, that is, of the Angle under which the Earth's Semidiameter appears at the Sun. Thus let S be the Centre of the Sun, and C the Centre of the Earth D E F in her Orbit A B; the Angle D S C is that which we ſpeak of, as being that under which the Semidiameter C D of the Earth appears at the Sun. Pl. LIV. Fig. 2.

17. To find this Angle Aſtronomers have attempted Variety of Methods, but have as yet found none that will determine it exactly; however, by many repeated Obſervations of Dr. *Halley* it is found to be not greater than 12″, nor leſs than 9″. Wherefore 10½″ (the Mean) has been fixed upon as near the Truth, which we muſt be contented with till *May* 26, 1761, when *Venus* will tranſit the Sun's Diſk, by which means the ſame Gentleman has ſhewn the Sun's Parallax may be determined to a great Nicety, *viz.* to within a 500dth Part of the Whole. See *Phil. Tranſ.* N° 348, abridged by *Jones*, Vol. IV †.

18. Suppoſing therefore the Angle D S C = 10″ 30‴, and the Side D C = 1; then ſay,

As the Tangent of	D S C 10″ 30‴ =	5,706764
Is to Unity	D C = 1 =	0,000000
So is Radius	90° =	10,000000
To the Side	S C = 19657,8 =	4,293236

Then 19657,8 Semidiameters of the Earth multiplied by 4000 gives 78631200 *Engliſh* Miles for the Diſtance of the Sun.

19. Not the Diſtances only, but alſo the Diameters of the Planets are to be inveſtigated, by meaſuring their apparent

† Since the above was wrote, both the Tranſits of Venus have paſſed; *viz.* that in 1761, and the laſt in 1769; but nothing certain relating to the Sun's Parallax has been determined as yet; the Obſervations on the laſt Tranſit having not been all received.

apparent Diameters with a Micrometer adapted to a good Teleſcope. Thus the Sun in his mean Diſtance will be found to ſubtend an Angle of 32′ 12″ = 1932″, and the Earth at the Sun ſubtends an Angle of 21″ (being double the Angle D S C.) Therefore the Sun's Diameter is to the Earth's Diameter as 1932 to 21, that is, as 10000 to 109.

20. Again: Mr. *Pound* (with the *Hugenian* Teleſcope of 123 Feet) found *Saturn* ſubtended an Angle of 16″. Therefore if *Saturn* were brought to the mean Diſtance of the Earth from the Sun, his apparent Diameter would be increaſed in the Ratio of $\frac{954006}{100000}$ to 1; that is, its Diameter would be ſeen under an Angle equal to $\frac{954006}{100000} \times 16'' = 152,''64096$. Whence the Sun's Diameter is to *Saturn*'s as 1932″ : 152,″64096 :: 10000 : 790.

21. The ſame Gentleman meaſured *Jupiter*'s apparent Diameter, and found it ſubtend an Angle of 37″; wherefore *Jupiter* at the Diſtance of the Earth would ſubtend an Angle equal to $\frac{520096}{100000} \times 37'' = 192,''417$. Hence the Sun's real Diameter is to that of *Jupiter* as 1932″ : 192,″417 :: 10000 : 996.

22. *Hugenius* meaſured the Diameter of *Mars* when neareſt the Earth, and found it did not exceed 30″; and that the Diſtance of *Mars* from the Earth was then to the Sun's mean Diſtance as 15 to 41. (See his *Syſtema Saturnium.*) Therefore *Mars* removed to the Diſtance of the Sun would ſubtend an Angle equal to $\frac{15}{41} \times 30'' = 10,''9756$. Whence the Diameter of the Sun is to that of *Mars* as 1932″ to 10,″9756 :: 10000 : 57.

23. Dr. *Halley* collected from the Appearance of *Venus* in the Sun's Diſk, *May* 26, 1761, that *Venus* ſeen from the Sun at her mean Diſtance would appear under an Angle of 30′; conſequently, at the Sun's mean Diſtance ſhe would appear under an Angle equal to $\frac{72333}{100000} \times 30'' = 21,6999$. Therefore the Sun's real

Diameter

Diameter is to that of *Venus* as 1932″ : 21,″6992 :: 10000 : 112 *.

24. The ſame learned Gentleman by the like means finds *Mercury* at his mean Diſtance ſubtend an Angle of 20″, and therefore at the Sun an Angle of $\frac{38710}{100000} \times 20'' = 7,''742$. Wherefore the Diameters of the Sun and *Mercury* are as 1932″ : 7,″742 :: 10000 : 40.

25. There are other Phænomena of the Planets to be obſerved, from whence ſeveral important Diſcoveries have been made in the Phyſical Part of Aſtronomy. Thus the Sun and ſome Planets, when viewed with a good Teleſcope, appear to have dark Spots on their Surface; by theſe Spots thoſe Bodies are found to have a Motion about their Axis, and the Poſition of their Axis with reſpect to the Plane of the Ecliptic is by this means determined.

26. Theſe Spots are moſt numerous and eaſily obſerved in the Sun. It is not uncommon to ſee them in various Forms, Magnitudes, and Numbers, moving over the Sun's Diſk. They were firſt of all diſcovered by the lyncean Aſtronomer *Galileo*, in the Year 1610, ſoon after he had finiſhed his new-invented Teleſcope.

27. That theſe Spots adhere to or float upon the Surface of the Sun, is evident for many Reaſons. (1.) For many of them are obſerved to break out near the Middle of the Sun's Diſk; others to decay and vaniſh there, or at ſome Diſtance from his Limb. (2.) Their apparent Velocities are always greateſt over the Middle of the Diſk, and gradually ſlower from thence on each Side towards the Limb. (3.) The Shape of the Spots varies according to their Poſition on the ſeveral Parts of the Diſk; thoſe which are round and broad in the Middle grow oblong and ſlender as they approach the Limb, according as they ought to appear by the Rules of *Optics*.

28. By comparing many Obſervations of the Intervals of Time in which the Spots made their Revolutions, by *Galileo*, *Caſſini*, *Scheiner*, *Hevelius*, Dr. *Halley*, Dr. *Derham*, and others, it is found that 27 Days,

* The apparent Diameter of *Venus* (meaſured by a Micrometer) upon the Face of the Sun in both Tranſits, was 58″ at a Mean. (*See my Treatiſe on the Tranſits lately Publiſhed*).

Days, 12 Hours, 20 Minutes is the Meaſure of one of them at a Mean: But in this Time the Earth deſcribes the angular Motion of 26° 22′ about the Sun's Centre; therefore ſay, As 360° + 26° 22′ is to 360°, ſo is 27d. 12 h. 20′ to 25 d. 15 h. 16′; which therefore is the Time of the Sun's Revolution about its Axis.

29. Had the Spots moved over the Sun in right lined Directions, it would have ſhewn the Sun's Axis to have been perpendicular to the Plane of the Ecliptic; but ſince they move in a curvilinear Path, it proves his Axis inclined to the Axis of the Ecliptic; and it is found by Obſervation, that that Angle is equal to 7° 30′; that is, if B D paſſing through the Centre of the Sun C be perpendicular to the Plane of the Earth's Equator H I, then will the Axis of the Sun's Motion A E contain with that Perpendicular the Angle A C B = 7° 30′ = G C I, the Angle which the Equator of the Sun G F makes with the Plane of the Ecliptic.

Pl. LIV. Fig. 3.

30. And the Points in which a Plane paſſing through the Perpendicular B D and Axis A E cuts the Ecliptic are in the 8th Degree of *Piſces* on the Side next the Sun's North Pole A, and conſequently in the 8th Degree of *Virgo* on the other Side next the South Pole E. *Schenier* had determined the Angle B C A to be 7 Degrees, and *Caſſini* made it 8 by his Obſervations; which is the Reaſon why 7° 30′ is choſen for a Mean.

31. As to the Magnitude of the Spots, it is very conſiderable, as will appear if we obſerve that ſome of them are ſo large as to be plainly viſible to the naked Eye. Thus *Galileo* ſaw one in the Year 1612, and I know two Gentlemen who have thus view'd them within 20 Years paſt: Theſe Spots therefore muſt ſubtend at leaſt an Angle of 1 Minute. Now the Diameter of the Earth, if removed to the Sun, would ſubtend an Angle of but 20″; hence the Diameter of a Spot juſt viſible to the naked Eye is to the Diameter of the Earth as 60 to 20, or as 3 to 1; and therefore the Surface of the Spot, if circular, to a Great Circle of the Earth as 9 to 1. But the Areas of 4 Great Circles are equal to the Earth's Superficies; whence the Surface of the Spot is to the Surface of the Earth as 9 to 4, or as $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 1.

32. *Gaſſendus* ſays he ſaw a Spot whoſe Diameter was equal to $\frac{1}{20}$ of that of the Sun, and therefore ſub-

tended an Angle at the Eye of 1′ 30″; its Surface was therefore above 5 times larger than the Surface of the whole Earth. What thoſe Spots are, I believe no body can tell; but they ſeem to be rather thin Surfaces than ſolid Bodies, becauſe they loſe the Appearance of Solidity in going off the Diſk of the Sun. They reſemble ſomething of the Nature of Scum or Scoria ſwimming on the Surface, which are generated and diſſolved by Cauſes little known to us.

33. But whatever the Solar Spots may be, 'tis certain they are produced from Cauſes very inconſtant and irregular: For *Scheiner* in his *Roſa Urſina*, which contains near 2000 Obſervations upon theſe Spots, ſays he frequently ſaw 50 at once, but for 20 Years after, (*viz.* between the Year 1650 and 1670) ſcarce any appeared. And in this Century the Spots were frequent and numerous till the Year 1741, when for three Years ſucceſſively very few appeared. I ſaw but one in all that Time; and now ſince the Year 1744 they have appeared again as uſual.

34. Theſe *Maculæ* or dark Spots are not peculiar to the Sun; they have been obſerved alſo in the Planets. Thus *Venus* was obſerved to have ſeveral by Signior *Blanchini*, the Pope's Domeſtic Prelate, in the Year 1726; by which he determined her Revolution about her Axis to be performed in 24 Days and 8 Hours; and that her Axis is inclined to the Plane of the Ecliptic in an Angle of 15 Degrees; and laſtly, that the North Pole of this Planet faces the 20th Degree of *Aquarius*.

35. As in *Venus*, ſo in *Mars*, both dark and bright Spots have been obſerved by *Galileo* firſt, and afterwards by Signior *Caſſini*, Dr. *Hook*, *Miraldi*, Mr. *Roemer*, and others. By theſe Spots the diurnal Revolution of *Mars* about its Axis is determined to be 24 Hours and 40 Minutes; and that the Axis is nearly perpendicular to the Plane of its Orbit.

36. There ſeems to be good Reaſon to conclude *Mars* is encompaſſed with a large Atmoſphere; for *Caſſini* obſerved a Fixed Star, at the Diſtance of 6 Minutes from the Diſk of *Mars*, became ſo faint before

THESE are all the heavenly Bodies yet known to circulate about the Sun, as the Centre of their Motions; and among the Planets, there are three which are found to have their *ſecondary Planets*, *Satellites*, or *Moons*, revolving conſtantly about them, as

its Occultation, that it could not be ſeen with the naked Eye, nor with a Teleſcope of 3 Feet; though Stars of that Magnitude are plainly viſible even in Contact with the Moon, which for that Reaſon ſeems to have no Atmoſphere.

37. *Jupiter* has had his Spots obſervable ever ſince the Invention and Uſe of large Teleſcopes; and from repeated Obſervations they ſhew *Jupiter*'s Revolution about its Axis is in 9 Hours and 56 Minutes. Beſides theſe Spots, *Jupiter* has the Appearance of three Zones or Belts encompaſſing his Body, ſometimes more, ſo that his Diſk ſeems clouded with them: What they are, no Body yet can tell. The Axis of this Planet alſo is nearly perpendicular to the Plane of his Orbit.

38. Conſidering the large Magnitude of *Jupiter*, and his ſhort diurnal Rotation, the Equatorial Parts of his Surface muſt have a prodigious Velocity, which of Conſequence muſt cauſe him to be of a ſpheroidical Figure (as was ſhewn of the Earth.) Accordingly *Caſſini* found the Axis of the Equator to be to that of the Poles as 14 to 15; but Mr. *Pound* afterwards more exactly determined them to be as 12 to 13, agreeable to Sir *Iſaac Newton*'s Computation.

39. *Saturn* by reaſon of his great Diſtance on one hand, and *Mercury* by reaſon of his Smallneſs and Vicinity to the Sun on the other, have not as yet had any Spots diſcovered on their Surfaces; and conſequently nothing in relation to their diurnal Motions, and Inclinations of their Axis to the Planes of their Orbits, can be known.

as the Centres of their Motions, (CXXXV) *viz.*

THE

(CXXXV) 1. Of the ſix Primary Planets, we find but *three* that are certainly attended with Moons, *viz.* the *Earth*, *Jupiter*, and *Saturn*; for though Mr. *Short* has given an Account of a Phænomenon that he obſerved ſome Years ago, which ſeems extremely like a Moon about *Venus*, yet as it was never obſerved before nor ſince through the beſt of Teleſcopes, I can by no means think it was a real Moon: However, that the Reader may uſe his own Judgment, I refer him to the Account given of it in the *Philoſophical Tranſactions*.

2. The Diſtance of our Moon from the Earth is determined by her horizontal Parallax, or the Angle which the Semidiameter of the Earth ſubtends at the Moon, *viz.* the Angle A O C, which is the Difference between the true Place of the Moon's Centre O when in the Horizon, and the apparent Place thereof as view'd from the Surface of the Earth at A. The former is known by Aſtronomical Tables, the latter by Obſervation: And the Quantity of this Difference or Angle at a Mean is $57' 12'' = A O C$. Pl. LIV. Fig. 4.

3. If therefore we ſay, As the Tangent of $57' 12''$ is to Radius, ſo is $A C = 1$ to $C O = 60,1$; this will be the mean Diſtance of the Moon in Semidiameters of the Earth. Therefore ſince one Semidiameter of the Earth contains 3982 Miles, we have $3982 \times 60,1 = 239318,2 = C O$ the mean Diſtance of the Moon.

4. The Moon's apparent Semidiameter M O meaſures (at her mean Diſtance) $15' 38'' = 938''$ by the Micrometer, which is the Quantity of the Angle M C O. The Earth's Diameter therefore is to the Moon's as $3432''$ to $938''$, that is, as 109 to 30, or as 3,63 to 1. Wherefore $\frac{30}{109} \times 7964 = 2192$ Miles is the Moon's Diameter.

5. Therefore the Face of the Earth, as it appears to the *Lunarians*, is to the Face of the Moon as it appears to us, as 109×109 to 30×30, *viz.* as 11881 to 900,

THE EARTH, which has only *one Moon* revolving about it, in 27 Days, 7 Hours, 43 Minutes,

900, or as 13,2 to 1. And the real Bulk of the Earth is to that of the Moon as 109 × 109 × 109 to 30 × 30 × 30, *viz.* as 1295029 to 27000, that is, as 1295 to 27, or as 48 to 1 very nearly.

6. Sir *Iſaac Newton* mentions the Atmoſphere about the Moon, but other Aſtronomers think there is Reaſon (not to ſay a Demonſtration) for the contrary: For were there an Atmoſphere of Air like ours, it muſt neceſſarily obſcure the Fixed Stars in the Moon's Appulſe to them; but it has been obſerved that this never happens; on the contrary they preſerve all their Splendor to the Moment of their Occultation, and then diſappear inſtantaneouſly, and in the ſame manner they recover their Light when they appear again on the other Side. And this I am very certain of from the late remarkable Occultation of *Jupiter*, which I obſerved with a good reflecting Teleſcope from the Beginning to the End with all the Attention poſſible, becauſe I was very deſirous to be ſatisfied about that Matter; and all the Phænomena conſpired to convince me, there was nothing like an Atmoſphere about the Moon.

7. That the Surface of the Moon is not ſmooth or even, but diverſified with Hills and Vales, Continents and Seas, Lakes, *&c.* any one would imagine who views her Face through a large Teleſcope. That ſhe has Variety of Hills and Mountains is demonſtrable from the Line which bounds the light and dark Parts not being an even regular Curve, as it would be upon a ſmooth ſpherical Surface, but an irregular broken Line, full of Dens and Notches, as repreſented in the Figure: Alſo becauſe many ſmall (and ſome large) bright Spots appear in the dark Portion, ſtanding out at ſeveral ſmall Diſtances from the boundary Line; which Spots in a few Hours become larger, and at laſt unite with the enlightened Portion of the Diſk.

8. On the other hand we obſerve many ſmall Spots interſperſed all over the bright Part, ſome of which have

Minutes, at the mean Diſtance of about 240,000 Miles.

JUPITER

have their dark Sides next the Sun, and their oppoſite Sides very bright and circular, which infallibly proves them to be deep, hollow, round Cavities; of which there are two very remarkable ones near together on the upper Part, and may be viewed exceeding plain when the Moon is about four or five Days old.

9. To meaſure the Height of a Lunar Mountain is a curious Problem, and at the ſame time very eaſy to effect in the following Manner. Let C be the Moon's Centre, E D B a Ray of the Sun touching the Moon's Surface in D, and the Top of a Mountain in B. Draw C B and C D; the Height of the Mountain A B is to be found. With a Micrometer in a Teleſcope find what Proportion the Diſtance of the Top of the Mountain B from the Circle of Illumination at D, bears to the Diameter of the Moon, that is, the Proportion of the Line D B to D F; and becauſe D F is known in Miles, D B will be alſo known in that Meaſure. Pl. LIV. Fig. 5.

10. Now admit that D B : D C :: 1 : 8, as in one of the Hills it will be; then $\overline{DC}^2 + \overline{DB}^2 = 64 + 1 = 65 = \overline{CB}^2$; whence $\sqrt{65} = 8{,}062 = BC$; wherefore B C — A C = 8,062 — 8 = 0,062 = A B, the Height of the Mountain required. Wherefore A C : A B :: 8 : 0,062 :: 8000 : 62. And ſince the Moon's Semidiameter A C = 1096 Miles, therefore 8000 : 62 :: 1096 : 8,5 nearly. This Mountain then being $8\frac{1}{2}$ Miles high, is nearly three times higher than the higheſt Mountain on the Earth.

11. Again, the Cavities are proportionably large and deep. I have obſerved Cavities in the Moon more than the 100dth Part of the Moon's Diameter in Breadth, which is about 200 Miles upon the Moon's Surface; their Depths appear likewiſe proportional. The Lunar Cavities therefore prodigiouſly exceed the Height of the Mountains; and conſequently the Surface of the Moon

JUPITER is obſerved with a Teleſcope to have four *Satellites*, which move about him

has but little Similitude to the Surface of the Earth in theſe Reſpects.

12. Since the Moon's Surface appears to be ſo very mountainous and irregular, it has been a Queſtion, how it comes to paſs that the bright circular Limb of the Diſk does not appear jagged and irregular, as well as the Curve bounding the light and dark Parts? In Anſwer to this, it muſt be conſidered, that if the Surface of the Moon had but one Row of Mountains placed round the Limb of the Diſk, the ſaid bright Limb would then appear irregularly indented; but ſince the Surface is all over mountainous, and ſince the viſible Limb is to be conſidered not as a ſingle curve Line, but a large Zone, having many Mountains lying one behind another from the Obſerver's Eye, 'tis evident the Mountains in ſome Rows being oppoſite to the Vales in others, will fill up the Inequalities in the viſible Limb in the remoter Parts, which diminiſh to the Sight and blend with each other, ſo as to conſtitute (like the Waves of the Sea) one uniform and even Horizon.

13. Whether there be Seas, Lakes, *&c.* in the Moon, has been a Queſtion long debated, but now concluded in the Negative: For in thoſe large darker Regions (which were thought to be Seas) we view through a good Teleſcope many permanent bright Spots, as alſo Caverns and empty Pits, whoſe Shadows fall within them, which can never be ſeen in Seas or any liquid Subſtance. Their dark and duſky Colour may proceed from a Kind of Matter or Soil which reflects Light leſs than that of the other Regions.

14. Theſe Spots in the Moon have continued always the ſame unchangeably ſince they were firſt viewed with a Teleſcope; though leſs Alterations than what happen in the Earth in every Seaſon of the Year, by Verdure, Snow, Inundations, and the like, would have cauſed a Change in their Appearance. But indeed, as there are no Seas nor Rivers in the Moon, and no Atmoſphere, ſo

him in the Times and Diſtances following, *viz.*

THE

ſo of courſe there can be no Clouds, Rain, Snow, or other Meteors, whence ſuch Changes might be expected.

15. Since (as we have ſhewn) the mean Diſtance of the Moon is about 60 Semidiameters of the Earth, at the Diſtance of the Moon one Degree of the Earth's Surface will ſubtend an Angle of one Minute, and will therefore be viſible; but ſuch a Degree is equal to $69\frac{1}{2}$ Miles, therefore a Spot or Place 70 Miles in Diameter in the Moon will be juſt viſible to the naked Eye.

16. Hence a Teleſcope that magnifies about 100 times will juſt diſcover a Spot whoſe Diameter is $\frac{1}{100}$ of 70 Miles, or $\frac{7}{10}$ of a Mile, or 3698 Feet: And a Teleſcope that will magnify 1000 times will ſhew an Object that is but $\frac{7}{100}$ of a Mile, that is, whoſe Diameter is but 370 Feet, or little more than 120 Yards; and therefore will eaſily ſhew a ſmall Town or Village, or even a Gentleman's Seat, if any ſuch there be.

17. The Time which the Moon takes up in making one Revolution about the Earth, from a Fixed Star to the ſame again, is 27 d. 7 h. 43′, which is called the *Periodical Month*. But the Time that paſſes between two Conjunctions, that is, from one New Moon to another, is equal to 29 d. 12 h. 44′ 3″, which is called a *Synodical Month*: For after one Revolution is finiſhed, the Moon has a ſmall Arch to deſcribe to get between the Sun and the Earth, becauſe the Sun keeps advancing forwards in the Ecliptic. Now this Surplus of Motion takes up 2 d. 5 h. 1′ 3″, which added to the Periodical Month makes the Synodical, according to the mean Motions.

18. The Moon moves about its own Axis in the ſame Time that it moves about the Earth, from whence it comes to paſs that ſhe always ſhews the ſame Face to us: for by this Motion about her Axis juſt ſo much of her Surface is turned towards us conſtantly, as by her Motion about the Earth would be turned from us.

THE *Firſt* in 1 Day, 18 Hours, 27 Minutes, at the Diſtance of $5\frac{6}{10}$ Semidiameters

19. But ſince this Motion about the Axis is equable and uniform, and that about the Earth (or common Centre of Gravity) is unequal and irregular, as being performed in an Ellipſis, it muſt follow, that the ſame Part of the Moon's Surface preciſely can never be ſhewn conſtantly to the Earth; and this is confirmed by the Teleſcope, through which we often obſerve a little Gore or Segment on the Eaſtern and Weſtern Limb appear and diſappear by turns, as if her Body librated to and fro; which therefore occaſioned this Phænomenon to be called the *Moon's Libration*.

20. The Orbit of the Moon is elliptical, more ſo than any of the Planets, and is perpetually changing or variable, both in reſpect of its Figure and Situation; of which we ſhall treat more largely in another Place. The Inclination of the Moon's Orbit to the Plane of the Ecliptic is alſo variable, from 5 Degrees to 5° 18'. The Line of Nodes likewiſe has a variable Motion from Eaſt to Weſt, contrary to the Order of the Signs, and compleats an entire Revolution in a Space of Time a little leſs than 19 Years. Alſo the Line of the *Apſides*, or of the *Apogee* and *Perigee*, has a direct Motion from Weſt to Eaſt, and finiſhes a Revolution in the Space of about 9 Years. All which will be more copiouſly treated of when we come to explain the Phyſical Cauſes thereof.

21. The Phaſes of the Moon in every Part of the Orbit are eaſily accounted for from her different Situation with reſpect to the Earth and Sun: For though to an Eye placed in the Sun ſhe will always exhibit a compleat illuminated Hemiſphere, yet in reſpect to the Earth, where that Hemiſphere is viewed in all Degrees of Obliquity, it will appear in every Degree from the greateſt to the leaſt; ſo that at E no Part at all of the enlightened Surface can be ſeen. At F a little Part of it is turned towards the Earth, and from its Figure it

Pl. LIV. Fig. 6.

is

ters of *Jupiter*'s Body from his Centre, as meaſured with a Micrometer.

THE

is then ſaid to be *horned*. At G one Half of the enlightened Surface is turned to the Earth, and ſhe is then ſaid to be *dichotomized*, and in her firſt Quarter or *Quadrature*. At H a Part more than half is turned to the Earth, and then ſhe is ſaid to be *gibbous*. At A her whole illumined Hemiſphere is ſeen, being then in *Oppoſition* to the Sun; and this is called the *Full Moon*. At B ſhe is again *gibbous*, but on the other Part; at C ſhe is again *dichotomized*, and in her laſt Quarter; at D ſhe is *horned*, as before; and then becomes *new* again at E, where ſhe is in *Conjunction* with the Sun.

22. If M N be drawn perpendicular to the Line S L joining the Centres of the Sun and Moon, and O P perpendicular to the Line T L joining the Centres of the Earth and Moon, 'tis evident the Angle O L M in the firſt Half of the Orbit, and P L N in the ſecond, will be proportional to the Quantity of the illuminated Diſk turned towards the Earth; and this Angle is every where equal to the Angle E T L, which is called the *Elongation of the Moon* from the Sun.

23. To find what Quantity of the Moon's viſible Surface is illuſtrated for any given Time, we are to conſider that the Circle of Illumination B F C is oblique to the View every where (but at G and A) and therefore by the Laws of the Orthographic Projection (which ſee in my *Elements of all Geometry*) it will be projected into an Ellipſe whoſe longeſt Axis is the Diameter of the Moon B C, and the Semi-conjugate is F L = Coſine of the Angle of Elongation F B P. Hence F P = Verſed Sine of the ſaid Angle. But from the Nature of the Circle and Ellipſe we have L P in a conſtant Ratio to F P, wherever the Line P O is drawn perpendicular to B; therefore alſo 2 L P = P O has a conſtant Ratio to F P. *But* (by *Euclid* V. 12.) *the Sum of all the Lines* O P = *Area of the Circle, is to the Sum of all the Lines* F P = *Area of the illuminated Part, as the*

Pl. LIV. Fig. 7.

THE *Second* in 3 Days, 13 Hours, 13 Minutes, at the Diſtance of 9 Semidiameters.

THE *Third* in 7 Days, 3 Hours, 42 Minutes, at the Diſtance of $14\frac{3}{10}$ Semidiameters.

THE *Fourth* in 16 Days, 16 Hours, 32 Minutes,

the Diameter of the Circle O P *to the Verſed Sine of the Elongation* F P.

24. As the Moon illuminates the Earth by a reflex Light, ſo does the Earth the Moon; but the other Phænomena will be different for the moſt part. I ſhall recount them for the Reader's Curioſity as follows. (1.) The Earth will appear but to little more than one-half of the Lunar Inhabitants. (2.) Thoſe to whom the Earth is viſible, it appears fixed, or at leaſt to have no circular Motion, but only that which reſults from the Moon's *Libration*. (3.) To thoſe who live in the Middle of the Moon's viſible Hemiſphere ſee the Earth directly over their Heads. (4.) To thoſe who live in the Extremity of that Hemiſphere the Earth ſeems always nearly in the Horizon, but not exactly there, by reaſon of the *Libration*. (5.) The Earth in the Courſe of a Month would have all the ſame Phaſes as the Moon has. Thus the *Lunarians* when the Moon is at E, in the Middle of their Night, ſee the Earth at *Full*, or ſhining with a full Face; at G it is *dichotomized*, or half light and half dark; at A it is wholly dark, or *New*; and at the Parts between theſe it is *gibbous*. (6.) The Earth appears variegated with Spots of different Magnitudes and Colours, ariſing from the Continents, Iſlands, Oceans, Seas, Clouds, *&c.* (7.) Theſe Spots will appear conſtantly revolving about the Earth's Axis, by which the *Lunarians* will determine the Earth's diurnal Rotation, in the ſame Manner as we do that of the Sun.

Minutes, at the Diſtance of 25$\frac{1}{10}$ Semidiameters (CXXXVI).

SATURN

(CXXXVI) 1. GALILEO firſt diſcovered the *Satellites* or *Moons* of *Jupiter*, in the Year 1610; and call'd them *Mediceæ Sidera*, or *Medicean Stars*, in Honour of the Family of the *Medici*, his Patrons. The famous Piece called *Sidereus Nuncius*, in which he particularly deſcribes the Diſcovery of theſe Stars, he dedicated to COSMUS MEDICES II. the fourth Great Duke of *Hetruria*.

2. The Orbits of *Jupiter*'s Moons lie nearly in the Plane of the Ecliptic, which is the Reaſon why their Motion is apparently in a right Line, and not circular, as it really is. To underſtand this, let S be the Sun, T the Earth in its Orbit T H, I the Planet *Jupiter* in his Orbit A I B, and in the Centre of the four Orbits of his Moons. Then, becauſe the Plane of thoſe Orbits does nearly paſs through the Eye, the real Motion of the *Satellite* in the Periphery will be apparently in the Diameter of the Orbit, which is at Right Angles to the Line joining the Centre of the Earth and *Jupiter*.

3. Thus ſuppoſing the Earth at R, if D C be drawn through the Centre of *Jupiter* perpendicular to R I, the Motion of each Moon and their Places will appear to be in that Line. Thus if the exterior Moon be at E or F, it will appear to be at I, either upon or behind the Centre of *Jupiter*; if the Moon move from E to K, it will appear to have moved from I to L; and when it moves from K to C, it will appear to move from L to C. Again, while the Satellite moves from C to M, it will appear to move from C to L; and as it goes from thence to F, it apparently moves from L to I. Thus alſo on the other Side the Orbit, while the Satellite deſcribes the Quadrant F D, its apparent Motion will be from I to D; and then from D to I again, as it comes from D to E.

4. Whence, ſince this is the Caſe of each Satellite, it appears that while each Satellite deſcribes the remote

Half

SATURN has *five Moons*; and beſides them a ſtupendous Ring ſurrounding his Body, whoſe

Half of its Orbit C F D, its apparent Motion will be direct, or from Weſt to Eaſt along the Line C D; and while it deſcribes the other Half D E C, its apparent Motion is retrograde, or from Eaſt to Weſt back again along the Line from D to C. So that each Satellite traverſes the Diameter of its Orbit twice in each Revolution.

5. The Moons of *Jupiter* ſeverally ſhew the ſame Phaſes to him as ours does to us. They diſappear from our Sight ſometimes, ſo that 'tis very rare to have all the four in View at once; nor is it poſſible to know which Satellite in Order you ſee, but from the Knowledge of the Theory and Calculation, becauſe the remoteſt Satellite may appear neareſt to *Jupiter*, and the contrary, as is evident from a View of the Figure.

6. Theſe Moons, like our own, ſuffer an Eclipſe every time they come to the Shadow of *Jupiter*, as at F. Alſo, ſuppoſing the Earth at T, the Satellite at G will undergo an Occultation behind the Body of *Jupiter*, as is evident from the Scheme. Again, a Satellite will ſometimes loſe its Luſtre as it paſſes over the enlighten'd Diſk of its Primary; as when it is at E and N, and the Earth in R and T. Laſtly, One Satellite at O may diſappear behind another at K, or cauſe another to diſappear behind it at M.

7. The Obſervations by Teleſcopes have been carried ſo far as to make it very probable that all the Satellites do really revolve about their own Axis, by means of Spots which they have diſcovered to belong to them, and which by their Motion cauſe a great Variety in the Brightneſs of the Satellites, and ſometimes do almoſt obſcure them: For which ſee Mr. *Pound*'s *Obſervations in Jones*'s *Abridgement of the Philoſophical Tranſactions*, Vol. IV. p. 307.

8. By means of *Jupiter*'s Satellites ſeveral noble Problems in Natural Philoſophy have an eaſy and elegant Solution;

whoſe *Width* and *Diſtance* from *Saturn*'s Body are equal, and computed at upwards of 20,000 Miles. The Periodical Times and Diſtances of the *Saturnian* Moons in Semidiameters of the Ring are as follow.

THE *Firſt*, or inmoſt, revolves about *Saturn* in 1 Day, 21 Hours, 18 Minutes, at

Solution; the Firſt of which is, *to determine the Ratio of the Velocity of Light.* The Manner how this is done I have elſewhere ſhewn: See *Annot.* CXII. The Second is, *to determine the Longitude of a Place from any propoſed Meridian*; which is eaſily done by the following Method. Let the Moment of Time in which the Satellite enters the Shadow of *Jupiter* be calculated for the given Meridian from Tables of its Motion; then let the Moment of Time be well obſerved when this Immerſion happens at the propoſed Place; the Difference of theſe two Moments turned into Motion will give the Longitude of the Place for that Meridian, allowing 15 Degrees for every Hour, 1 Degree for every 4 Minutes of Time, or 15 Minutes of a Degree for every Minute of Time.

9. The Third Problem is, *to find the Diſtance of* Jupiter *from the Sun.* This is done as follows: Let the middle Moment of the Occultation of a Satellite as at G be obſerved, and again the middle Moment of the following at F; this will give the Time in which the Arch G F is deſcribed. Then ſay, As the Time of the whole Revolution is to the Time now found, ſo is the whole Circle or 360 Degrees to the Degrees and Minutes contained in the Arch F G; which is therefore the Meaſure of the Angle F I G, or its Equal T I S, which is the Parallatic Angle at *Jupiter*; which being known, the Diſtance of *Jupiter* from the Sun I S is known, by what has been ſhewn in *Annot.* CXXXIV. Fig. 8.

at the Diſtance of near 2 Semidiameters of the Ring.

THE *Second* in 2 Days, 17 Hours, 41 Minutes, at the Diſtance of $2\frac{2}{3}$ Semidiameters.

THE *Third* in 4 Days, 12 Hours, 25 Minutes, at the Diſtance of $3\frac{2}{3}$ Semidiameters.

THE *Fourth* in 15 Days, 22 Hours, 41 Minutes, at the Diſtance of 8 Semidiameters.

THE *Fifth* in 70 Days, 22 Hours, 4 Minutes, at the Diſtance of $23\frac{3}{10}$ Semidiameters (CXXXVII).

THESE

(CXXXVII) 1. Though *Galileo*'s Teleſcope was ſufficient to diſcover all *Jupiter*'s Moons, it would not reach *Saturn*'s, they being at too great a Diſtance. But yet this ſagacious Obſerver found *Saturn*, by reaſon of his Ring, had a very odd Appearance; for his Glaſs was not good enough to exhibit the true Shape of the Ring, but only a confuſed Idea of that and *Saturn* together, which in the Year 1610 he advertiſed in the Letters of this Sentence tranſpoſed: *Altiſſimum Planetam tergeminum obſervavi*; i. e. *I have obſerved* Saturn *to have three Bodies.*

2. This odd Phænomenon perplexed the Aſtronomers very much, and various Hypotheſes were formed to reſolve it; all which ſeemed trifling to the happy *Hugenius*, who applied himſelf purpoſely to improve the Grinding of Glaſſes, and perfecting long Teleſcopes, to arrive at a more accurate Notion of this Planet and its Appendage. Accordingly in the Year 1655 he conſtructed a Teleſcope of 12 Feet, and viewing *Saturn* divers times, he diſcovered ſomething like a Ring encompaſſing

THESE are the conſtituent Parts of the *Solar Syſtem*, which is now received and

compaſſing his Body; which afterwards with a Tube of 23 Feet he obſerved more diſtinctly, and alſo diſcovered a Satellite revolving about that Planet. This *Hugenian* Satellite is the fourth in Order from *Saturn*.

3. In the Year 1671 *Caſſini* diſcovered the third and fifth, and in the Year 1686 he hit upon the firſt and ſecond, with Tubes of 100 and 136 Feet; but could afterwards ſee all five with a Tube of 34 Feet. He called theſe Satellites *Sidera Lodoicea*, in Honour of *Louis le Grand*, in whoſe Reign and Obſervatory they were firſt diſcovered.

4. In the Year 1656 *Hugens* publiſhed his Diſcovery in relation to *Saturn*'s Ring in the Letters of this Sentence tranſpoſed, *viz. Annulo cingitur tenui, plano, nuſquam cohærente, ad Eclipticam inclinato*; that is, *Saturn is encompaſſed by a thin Plane or Ring, no where cohering to his Body, and inclined to the Plane of the Ecliptic.* This Inclination of the Ring to the Ecliptic is determined to be about 31 Degrees by *Hugens*, *Roemer*, *Picard*, *Campani*, &c. though by a Method not very definitive.

5. However, ſince the Plane of the Ring is inclined to the Plane of the Earth's Motion, it is evident when *Saturn* is ſo ſituated that the Plane of his Ring paſſes through the Earth, we can then ſee nothing of it; nor yet can we ſee it when the Plane paſſes between the Sun and the Earth, the dark Side being then turned to us, and only a dark Liſt appears upon the Planet, which is probably the Shadow of the Ring. In other Situations the Ring will appear elliptical more or leſs; when it is moſt ſo, the Heavens appear through the elliptic Space on each Side *Saturn* (which are called the *Anſæ*); yea, a Fixed Star was once obſerved by Dr. *Clarke*'s Father in one of them.

6. The Nodes of the Ring are in 19° 45′ of *Virgo* and *Piſces*. During *Saturn*'s Heliocentric Motion from

and approved as the only *true Syſtem of the World*, for the following Reaſons (CXXXVIII).

19° 45′ to the oppoſite Node, the Sun enlightens the Northern Plane of the Ring, and *viciſſim*.

7. Since *Saturn* deſcribes about one Degree in a Month, the Ring will be viſible through a good Teleſcope till within about 15 or 20 Days before and after the Planet is in the 19° 45′ of *Virgo* or *Piſces*. The Time therefore may be found by an Ephemeris, in which *Saturn* ſeen from the Earth ſhall be in thoſe Points of the Ecliptic; and likewiſe when he will be ſeen from the Earth in 19° 45′ of *Gemini* and *Sagittarius*, when the Ring will be moſt open, and in the beſt Poſition to be viewed.

8. There have been ſome Grounds to conjecture that *Saturn*'s Ring turns round an Axis, but that is not yet demonſtrable. This wonderful Ring in ſome Situations does alſo appear double; for *Caſſini* in the Year 1675 obſerved it to be biſected quite round by a dark elliptical Line, dividing it as it were into two Rings, of which the inner one appeared brighter than the outer. This was oftentimes obſerved afterwards with Tubes of 34 and 20 Feet, and more evidently in the Twilight or Moon-Light than in a darker Sky. See *Phil. Tranſ.* abridged, Vol. II. p. 221, 222.

(CXXXVIII) 1. The ſagacious *Kepler* was the firſt who diſcovered this great Law of Nature in all the Primary Planets, and afterwards the Aſtronomers obſerved that the Secondaries did likewiſe regulate their Motions by the ſame Law. I have already exhibited the Mathematical Theory thereof in *Annot.* XXXIV. 11, and given an Example in the Earth and *Venus*. And that the ſame Law holds in the Syſtem of *Jupiter*'s and *Saturn*'s Moons, will appear from the following Inſtances.

2. The firſt of *Jupiter*'s Moons is at the Diſtance of $2\frac{5}{6}$ of *Jupiter*'s Diameters from his Centre, and revolves

I. IT is moſt ſimple, and agreeable to the Tenor of Nature in all her Actions; for

volves in 42 Hours. The outermoſt deſcribes its Orbit in 402 Hours; therefore ſay, As 1764 (the Square of 42) is to 161604, (the Square of 402) ſo is $\frac{4913}{216}$ (the Cube of $2\frac{1}{3}$) to nearly $\frac{450000}{216}$ the Cube of $\frac{76}{6}$ or $12\frac{1}{3}$, the Diſtance of the fourth Satellite; which anſwers to Obſervations.

3. Or thus analytically by Logarithms, Let L = Logarithm of the Period of the firſt Satellite, l = Logarithm of any other Satellite's Period, and D and d the Logarithms of their Diſtances; then will it be $2L : 2l :: 3D : 3d$, and therefore $2L + 3d = 2l + 3D$; whence we have $d = D + \frac{2}{3}l - \frac{2}{3}L$. For Example; in the firſt and ſecond Satellites of *Jupiter*, *Caſſini* obſerved the Diſtance of the firſt in Semidiameters of *Jupiter* to be 5, whoſe Logarithm is 0,753353. The Periods of thoſe Satellites give $\frac{2}{3}l = 2{,}32459$, and $\frac{2}{3}L = 2{,}122851$; from whence we get $d = 0{,}95509$, the Number correſponding to which is 9,07, the Diſtance of the ſecond Satellite, agreeing wonderfully with Obſervation.

4. Now ſince the Moon turns round the Earth, if the Sun did likewiſe perform his Circuit about it, their Motions would undoubtedly be regulated by the ſame Law with all the reſt. But the Period of the Moon is 27 Days, that of the Sun 365; the Diſtance of the Moon 60 Semidiameters of the Earth; therefore ſay, As 729 (the Square of 27) is to 133225 (the Square of 365;) ſo is 216000 (the Cube of 60) to 39460356, the Cube Root whereof is 340, which ought to expreſs the Sun's Diſtance in Semidiameters of the Earth. But we have ſhewn the Sun is really diſtant from the Earth near 20000, (ſee *Annot.* CXXXIV. 18.)

5. Admitting the Sun to be at the Diſtance of 20000 Semidiameters, his *Periodical Time* would then be more

for by the Motions of the Earth all the *Phænomena* of the Heavens are reſolved, which by other *Hypotheſes* are inexplicable without a great Number of other Motions, contrary to philoſophical Reaſoning by Rule I.

II. It

than 450 Years, if its Motion were governed by *Kepler's* Law, and compared with that of the Moon; for as 216000 ($=60^3$) is to 8000000000000 ($=20000^3$) ſo is 729 ($=27^2$) to a Number, the Square Root of which is 164320 Days = 450 Years nearly, which is the Periodical Time of the Sun's Revolution at that Diſtance, and moving according to the Univerſal Law.

6. This beautiful and harmonious Syſtem, or Frame of the World, ſufficiently recommends itſelf from the Principles of right Reaſon only; ſuppoſing there were no ſuch Thing as abſolute Demonſtration attainable in the Caſe. It is therefore very ſurprizing, to obſerve, how few among thoſe who are not Mathematically learned, can be induced to believe, and acquieſce in this Doctrine of the Earth's Motion, and Stability of the Sun. *Copernicus*, above 200 Years ago, mentions the zealous Father *Lactantius*, as ridiculing thoſe who aſſerted the Spherical Figure of the Earth. Therefore, ſays he, it is not to be wondered at if ſuch Sort of People ſhould ridicule Us. And whatever the Popes may have ſince decreed, 'tis certain, this Doctrine was ſo far from being then reputed heretical and damnable, that this great Man dedicated his Book to Pope *Paul* III. becauſe by his Holineſs, Authority, and Learning, he might be ſecured againſt the Calumnies of ignorant Gainſayers; yea, and appealed to his Holineſs at the ſame Time for the Uſefulneſs of his Doctrine even to the Eccleſiaſtical Republick. His Words are, *Mathemata Mathematicis ſcribuntur, quibus & hi noſtri Labores, ſi me non fallit opinio, videbuntur etiam Reipublicæ Eccleſiaſticæ conducere aliquid, cujus Principatum tua Sanctitus nunc tenet.*

II. IT is more rational to ſuppoſe the Earth moves about the Sun, than that the huge Bodies of the Planets, the ſtupendous Body of the Sun, and the immenſe Firmament of Stars, ſhould all move round the inconſiderable Body of the Earth every twenty-four Hours.

III. THE Earth moving round the Sun is agreeable to that general Harmony, and univerſal Law, which all other moving Bodies of the Syſtem obſerve, viz. *That the Squares of the periodical Times are as the Cubes of the Diſtances:* But if the Sun move about the Earth, that Law is deſtroyed, and the general Order and Symmetry of Nature interrupted; ſince according to that Law the Sun would be ſo far from revolving about the Earth in 365 Days, that it would require no leſs than 5196 Years to accompliſh one Revolution.

IV. AGAIN: Did the Sun obſerve the univerſal Law, and yet revolve in 365 Days, his Diſtance ought not to be above 310 Semidiameters of the Earth; whereas it is eaſy to prove it is really above 20000 Semidiameters diſtant from us.

V. THE Sun is the Fountain of Light and Heat, which it irradiates through all the Syſtem; and therefore it ought to be

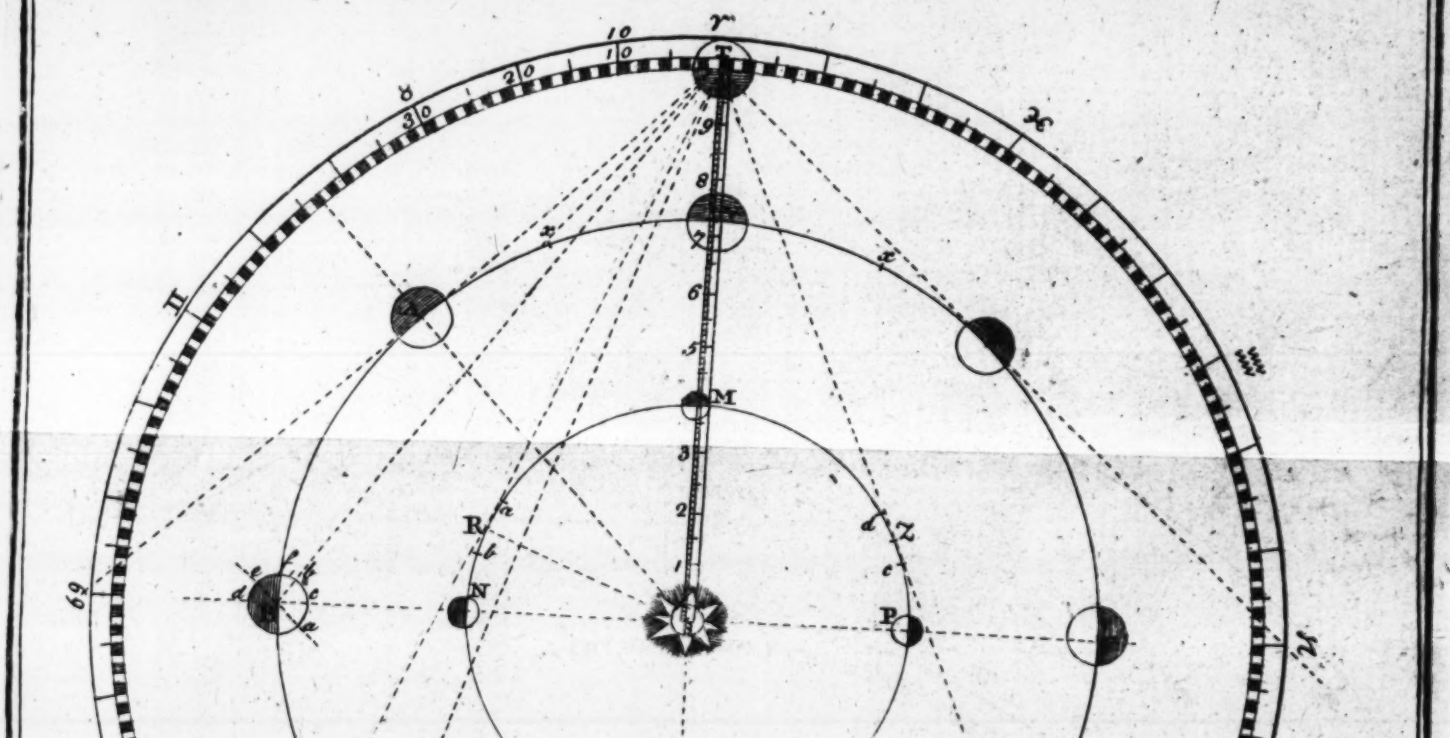
placed in the Centre, that ſo all the Planets may at all times have it in an uniform and equable Manner: For,

VI. IF the Earth be in the Centre, and the Sun and Planets revolve about it, the Planets would then, like the Comets, be ſcorched with Heat when neareſt the Sun, and frozen with Cold in their *Aphelia*, or greateſt Diſtance; which is not to be ſuppoſed.

VII. IF the Sun be placed in the Centre of the Syſtem, we have then the rational Hypotheſis of the Planets being all moved about the Sun by the univerſal Law or Power of Gravity ariſing from his vaſt Body; and every Thing will anſwer to the Laws of circular Motion, and centra Forces: But otherwiſe we are wholly in the dark, and know nothing of the Laws and Operations of Nature.

VIII. BUT happily we are able to give not only *Reaſon*, but *demonſtrative Proofs*, that the Sun does poſſeſs the Centre of the Syſtem, and that the Planets move about it at the Diſtance and in the Order above aſſigned: The *firſt* of which is, That *Mercury* and *Venus* are ever obſerved to have *two Conjunctions* with the Sun, but no *Oppoſition*; which could not happen, unleſs the

Vol. III. *Plate* LV. *P.* 133.



N
East
m
South
West
S

the Orbits of thoſe Planets lay within the Orbit of the Earth (CXXXIX).

IX. THE

(CXXXIX) 1. What relates to the Conjunctions and Oppoſitions of the Planets will be eaſily underſtood by a Diagram. Let S be the Sun, T the Earth, V *Venus*, and M *Mercury*, in their ſeveral Orbits. Now 'tis evident that when *Venus* and *Mercury* are at V and M, they will be ſeen from the Earth T in the ſame Part of the Heavens with the Sun, *viz.* at W, becauſe they are all poſited in one Right Line T W; and this is called the *Lower* or *Inferior Conjunction*. Pl. LV.

2. Again: When *Venus* and *Mercury* come to the Situations D and O, they are again in the ſame Right Line joining the Centres of the Earth and Sun, and are therefore again ſeen in the ſame Part of the Heavens with him; and this is called the *Upper* or *Superior Conjunction*. Here 'tis evident, thoſe two Planets muſt appear twice in Conjunction with the Sun in each Revolution, to a Spectator on the Earth at T, which we at preſent will ſuppoſe to be at Reſt.

3. Hence we have an infallible Proof that the Orbits of *Venus* and *Mercury* lie both within the Orbit of the Earth. Alſo the Orbits of *Mars*, *Jupiter*, and *Saturn* muſt lie without the Orbit of the Earth; for otherwiſe they could not exhibit the Appearance they do of alternate Conjunctions and Oppoſitions. Thus let *Mars* be in his Orbit at Y, 'tis evident when the Earth is at T, that Planet will be ſeen in Conjunction with the Sun, and will be then at its greateſt Diſtance from the Earth.

4. But when the Earth is at *t* between the Sun and *Mars*, 'tis plain they muſt appear in oppoſite Parts of the Heavens, becauſe a Perſon at *t* viewing the Sun at S muſt look directly to the contrary Part to view the Planet at Y; and in this Oppoſition to the Sun *Mars* in neareſt to the Earth: All which is ſo evident from the Scheme, and ſo exactly agreeable to the Phænomena of thoſe Planets in the Heavens, that any Perſon muſt be ſtrangely obſtinate, and incapable of any Sort of Con-

IX. THE *ſecond* is, That *Mars*, *Jupiter*, and *Saturn*, have each their *Conjunction* and

viction, who cannot ſee the Conſtitution of Nature, and the Diſpoſition of the Planetary Orbits, are ſuch as are above deſcribed.

5. But farther: If we divide the Diſtance of the Earth from the Sun, *viz.* the Line S T, into a hundred or a thouſand equal Parts, and place the Orbits of *Venus* and *Mercury* at the Diſtance of S V = 724, and S M = 388, and then draw T A, T R, to touch thoſe Orbits in the Points A and R; then 'tis plain the Angles A T S and R T S will meaſure the greateſt Diſtance at which either of thoſe Planets can be ſeen from the Sun, becauſe the viſual Ray paſſing to the Planet in any other Part of its Orbit will lie nearer to the Line T S W, and therefore ſhew the Planet nearer the Sun than when at A or R.

6. Now 'tis found by meaſuring thoſe Angles geometrically in the Diagram, that the Angle A T S = 47 Degrees, and R T S = 20, very nearly; and this agrees exactly with their obſerved greateſt Diſtances or Elongation from the Sun in the Heavens. Hence it is that *Mercury* is ſo rarely ſeen, and *Venus* but at certain Times of the Year; whereas if the Earth were at reſt, and in the Centre of the Planetary Orbits, thoſe Planets would be ſeen in all Poſitions and Diſtances from the Sun, in every reſpect like the Moon; and therefore 'tis perfectly ſurprizing, how any Man can reſiſt ſuch glaring Evidence of Truth on one hand, and Falſhood on the other.

7. We have already ſhewn, that the apparent Magnitude and Brightneſs of an Object decreaſes as the Square Diſtance increaſes; therefore the Magnitude of *Venus* ſeen at V is to that as it appears from D in the Proportion of $\overline{TD}^2$ to $\overline{TV}^2$, that is, as 1724^2 to 276^2, or as 36 to 1 nearly. And when *Venus* is meaſured in both thoſe Diſtances with a Micrometer in a Teleſcope, the Numbers ſhew the perfect Agreement of this Syſtem with Nature itſelf.

8. Thus

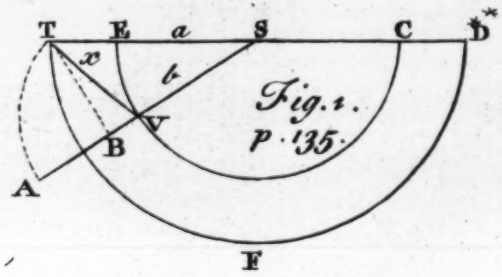


Fig. 1. p. 135.

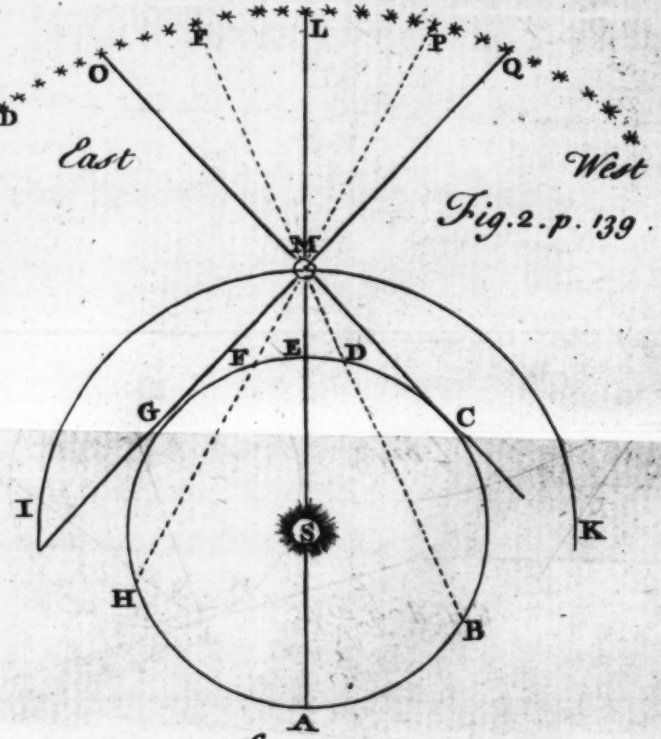


Fig. 2. p. 139.

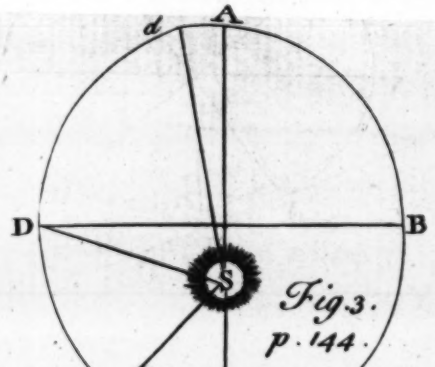


Fig. 3. p. 144.

Fig. 3.
p. 144.

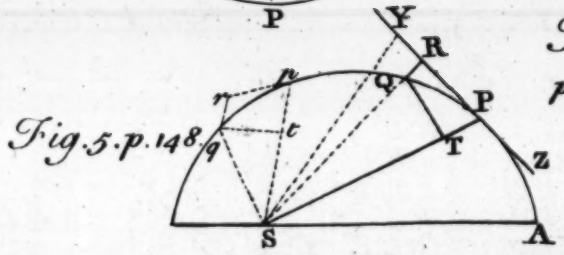


Fig. 5. p. 148.

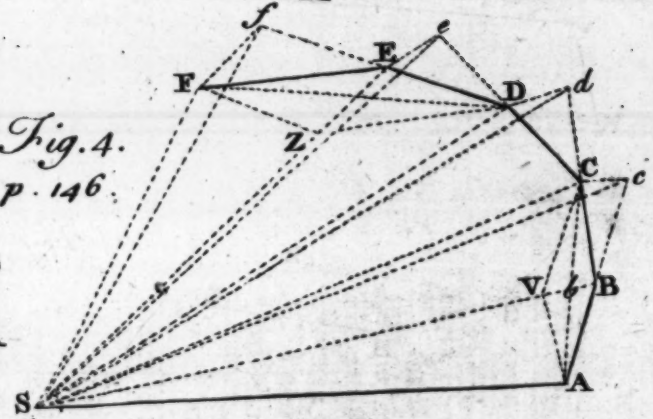


Fig. 4.
p. 146.

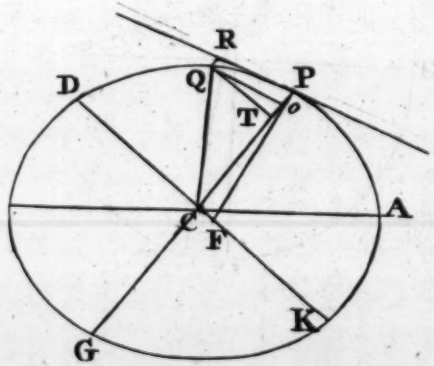


Fig. 8. p. 151.

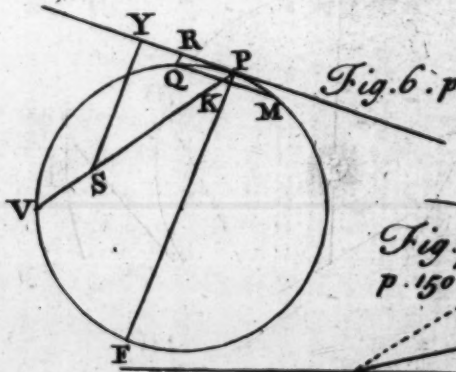


Fig. 6. p. 149.

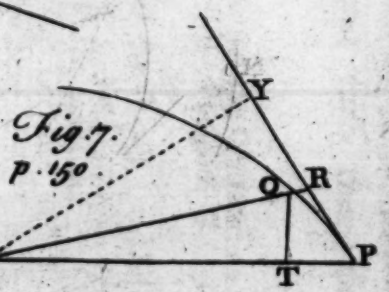


Fig. 7.
p. 150.

and *Oppoſitions* to the Sun, alternate and ſucceſſively; which could not be, unleſs their

8. Thus alſo the apparent Magnitude of *Mars*, when his Diſtance is *t* Y, is to that when his Diſtance is T Y, as $\overline{T Y}^2$ to $\overline{t Y}^2$; that is, as $252\frac{3}{4}^2$ to $52\frac{3}{4}^2$, or very nearly as 25 to 1. And this we know is true in Fact, by meaſuring the Planet in both thoſe Diſtances. It is likewiſe obvious to common Senſe; for *Mars* in his neareſt Diſtance appears ſo large that he has been often miſtaken for *Jupiter*, whereas in his greateſt Diſtance he appears ſo ſmall as ſcarcely to be diſtinguiſhed from a Fixed Star.

9. From what has been ſaid of the Phaſes of the Moon, 'tis eaſy to underſtand that *Venus* and *Mercury* muſt have nearly the like Appearances. Thus when *Venus* is at V, all her illumined Hemiſphere will be turned directly from the Earth, and ſhe will then be *New*. As ſhe paſſes from V to A ſhe will appear *horned*. At A ſhe will ſhew juſt half her enlightened Surface to the Earth, and appear *biſected*, or *dichotomiſed*. From A to D ſhe will appear more and more *gibbous*; and at D would appear a *Full* enlightned Hemiſphere, were it not that ſhe is then loſt in the Sun's Blaze, or hid behind his Body: All which Phaſes return again in the other half of the Orbit. The ſame Thing is obvious in *Mercury*, and *Mars* ſhews Part of thoſe Phaſes; but *Jupiter* and *Saturn* appear always with a Full face, by reaſon of their very great Diſtance.

10. The Appearance of *Venus* in the Day-time for ſeveral Days together, in ſome certain Years, put the ſagacious Dr. *Halley* on reſolving the following Problem, viz. *To find the Situation of* Venus *in reſpect of the Earth, when the Area of the illuminated Part of her Diſk is a Maximum.* I ſhall here give the Solution as he has propoſed it in the *Philoſophical Tranſactions*, N°. 349; and alſo the Demonſtration, which the Doctor omitted.

11. In order to this, let S be the Sun, V the Planet *Venus* in the Situation required, T the Earth, and T V her Diſtance ſought. Put T S = *a*, S V = *b*, T V = *x*, and Pl. LVI. Fig. 1.

their Orbits were exterior to the Orbit of the Earth.

X. In

and on the Point V with the Radius V T deſcribe the Quadrant TA; from T let fall the Perpendicular TB, and put B V = d; then A B = $x - d = v$, the Verſed Sine of the Angle T V A. Now (by *Euclid* II. 12.) we have $a^2 = b^2 + x^2 + 2bd$, whence $a^2 - 2bd = b^2 + x^2$; and by adding $2bx$ on each Side, $a^2 + 2bx - 2bd = b^2 + 2bx + x^2$; that is, $a^2 + 2bv = b^2 + 2bx + xx = r$. Then $r - a^2 = 2bv = s$; and multiplying by $2x$ we have $4bxv = 2xs$, whence $4bx : s :: 2x : v$; that is, $4bx : b^2 + 2bx + xx - a^2 :: 2TV : AB$ :: the Diameter of a Circle to the Verſed Sine of the exterior Angle T V A.

12. But in any Situation B of the Planet *Venus* the Arch of Illumination af is equal to the Arch bd, which meaſures the exterior Angle bBd. And it has been ſhewn, that *the Area of the whole Diſk of the Planet is to the Area of the enlightened Part as the Diameter of a Circle to the Verſed Sine of the Arch of Illumination*, and therefore as $4bx$ to $b^2 + 2bx + x^2 - a^2$.

13. But the Area of the whole Diſk is every where as $\frac{1}{xx}$; therefore, as $4bx : b^2 + 2bx + x^2 - a^2 :: \frac{1}{xx} : \frac{b^2 + 2bx + x^2 - a^2}{4bx^3}$, which in all Caſes will be proportioned to the enlightened Area of the Diſk. And to determine this a *Maximum*, its Fluxion muſt be $= o$, or the negative Parts thereof be equal to the affirmative, that is, that $\overline{2b\dot{x} + 2x\dot{x}} \times 4bx^3 = 12bx^2\dot{x} \times \overline{b^2 + 2bx + xx - a^2}$; and dividing all by $4bx^2\dot{x}$, the Equation becomes $2bx + 2x^2 = 3b^2 + 6bx + 3xx - 3a^2$. Conſequently $3bb + 4bx + xx = 3aa$; whence we get $x = \sqrt{3aa + bb} - 2b = 427$.

14. If therefore we take 427 from the Scale of equal Parts S T, and ſet from T to the Orbit of *Venus*, it will interſect it in the Point x; and drawing T x, it will give the

X. IN the *third* Place, the *greateſt Elongation* or *Diſtance* of *Mercury* from the Sun is

the Angle $\varkappa T S = 40$ Degrees nearly; which ſhews that when *Venus* is 40 Degrees diſtant from the Sun, before and after her *Inferior Conjunction* with him, ſhe then ſhines with the greateſt Luſtre poſſible.

15. In this Poſition we ſee not much more than $\frac{1}{4}$ of her Diſk enlightened, and yet ſhe ſhines with ſo great a Luſtre as to ſurpaſs the united Light of all the Fixed Stars that appear with her, and caſts a very ſtrong Shade on the horizontal Plane, and may be ſeen in the full Sun-ſhine of the Day; a Phænomenon very extraordinary, and which returns but once in eight Years.

16. The different Directions in which the Planets appear to move in the Heavens is an irrefragable Argument of the Truth of the Solar Syſtem; for in the *Ptolomean* S ſtem they would be ſeen to move with their true or real Motion, and in their Direction according to the Order of the Signs from Weſt to Eaſt, in every Part of their Orbits, and that always in an equable Manner; whereas now we obſerve them move ſometimes from *Weſt to Eaſt*, when they are ſaid to be *direct in Motion*; ſometimes from *Eaſt to Weſt*, when they are ſaid to be *retrograde*, or to go backwards; and ſometimes they appear not to move all for a certain Time, when they are ſaid to be *ſtationary*: And laſtly, the Motion of a Planet when *direct* is always much ſlower than when it is *retrograde*.

17. Now all theſe Phænomena are not only explicable by, but neceſſarily follow from, the *Copernican* Theory. Thus with reſpect to the Planet *Mercury*, when at R he will appear at his greateſt Diſtance from the Sun among the Stars at Q, being ſeen in the Line T Q; but as the Planet paſſes from R by N to O, the viſual Line T Q will continually approach the Line T W, in which the Sun appears at W; and when the Planet is come to D it will be in Conjunction with the Sun, and will have apparently deſcribed the Arch Q W in the Heavens. After this, while the Planet moves from O to Z,

is but about 20 Degrees, and that of *Venus* but about 47; which anſwers exactly to

O to Z, it will appear to go in the Heavens from W to X, ſtill the ſame Way as before; and becauſe its apparent Motion agrees with the true, it is all this while *direct*.

18. But when the Planet moves from Z to M, the Ray T X will return, and deſcribe the Arch X W back again; and as the Planet moves from M to R, the viſual Ray will keep moving on from W to Q; and ſo in the Paſſage of the Planet through the Part of its Orbit Z M R it will appear to move in the Heavens through X W Q, the ſame Arch as before, but in a *retrograde* Direction.

19. Now becauſe the Tangent Line or viſual Ray T Q or T X coincides as to Senſe with the Orbit of the Planet for a ſmall Diſtance on each Side the Points R and Z, as from *a* to *b*, and from *c* to *d*; therefore the Planet when it arrives at *a* will appear to move in the Tangent from *a* to *b*, during which Time it will be ſeen in the ſame Right Line T Q, and conſequently in the ſame Point Q in the Heavens: So that in its Motion from *a* to *b* it muſt appear *ſtationary*, or without any Motion; and the ſame is to be obſerved in moving from *c* to *d*, when the Planet is in that Part of its Orbit.

20. Hence we obſerve, that in *Mercury* and *Venus*, the Places R, Z, and A, G, of their greateſt Elongation are thoſe in which they are *ſtationary*. It is in theſe two Points that we can at any Time ſee *Mercury*; and it is in thoſe Points that we ſee *Venus* ſuch a glorious Morning-Star or *Phoſphorus* at A, and ſuch a ſplendid Evening-Star or *Heſperus* at G. Hence we obſerve, that from the Time *Venus* is a Morning-Star in her greateſt Elongation at A, to the Time of her being an Evening Star in her greateſt Elongation at G, ſhe is *direct* in Motion: Conſequently, half the Time of her being a Morning or Evening-Star ſhe is *direct*, and the other half *retrograde*.

21. Alſo

to their Diſtances in the Syſtem above aſſign'd: But in the *Ptolemean* Syſtem, they might

21. Alſo it is eaſy to obſerve, that ſince the ſame Arch Q X is deſcribed in Times very unequal, *viz.* in the Times the Planet deſcribes the very unequal Parts of its Orbits R O Z and Z M R, the Velocity of the Motion in the former Caſe muſt be much leſs than that in the latter; that is, the Planet when *direct* moves apparently much ſlower than when it is *retrograde*.

22. If we conſider the Diſpoſitions of the Orbits of the ſuperior Planets, we ſhall obſerve the ſame Phænomena of them alſo. Let S be the Sun, A C H the Earth's Orbit, I M K that of *Mars*, and O L Q the Firmament of Stars. Through *Mars* at M draw Q M G and O M C, to touch the Earth's Orbit in G and C. Then becauſe the Earth and *Mars* do both move the ſame Way, but the Earth very quick in reſpect of *Mars*, all the Phænomena will be the very ſame if we ſuppoſe *Mars* to be at reſt, and the Earth to move with the Difference of their Velocities. Plate LVI. Fig. 2.

23. Let *Mars* then be at Reſt in M, and the Earth begin her Motion from G. At G the Planet will be ſeen in the Line G Q, among the Stars at Q. When the Earth is at H, *Mars* will be ſeen in the Line H P, among the Stars at P. In the ſame manner at A, B, and C, the Planet will be projected to the Points L, N, O, in the Heavens. Therefore while the Earth deſcribes the Part of its Orbit G A C, *Mars* will appear to move through the Arch of the Heavens Q L O; which being from Weſt to Eaſt is according to the Order of the Signs, and the Planet will be *direct in Motion*.

24. But as the Earth proceeds from C to D, *Mars* will appear to move from O to N; and as the Earth goes on through E, F, to G, *Mars* will appear to return by L, P, to Q, and ſo meaſure back again the ſame Arch as before: And thus during the Earth's Paſſage from C to G, this Planet will appear *retrograde*; which therefore muſt always be the Caſe when he is in

might and would ſometimes be ſeen 180 Degrees from the Sun, *viz.* in Oppoſition to him.

XI. FOURTHLY,

Oppoſition to the Sun and neareſt to the Earth, as in Conjunction he is always *direct in Motion*; and when the Earth is in G or C, the Planet muſt appear for ſome Time *ſtationary*, for the Reaſons mentioned in *Art.* 19. The ſame may be ſhewn of *Jupiter* and *Saturn*; but as the Earth has a much greater relative Velocity in reſpect to *Jupiter* than it has with reſpect to *Mars*, the Times of the *Conjunctions* and *Oppoſitions*, as alſo of the *progreſſive* and *regreſſive Motions*, will be more frequent in *Jupiter* than in *Mars*, and for the ſame Reaſon will happen oftener in *Saturn* than in *Jupiter*.

25. Again: Another Phænomenon, which infallibly proves the Truth of the *Copernican* Syſtem, is, that *Venus* and *Mercury* ſuffer an Occultation behind the Sun's Diſk, when they are in the remoteſt Parts of their Orbits, as at D and O; but this can never happen in the *Ptolomean* Hypotheſis, becauſe there the Orbit of the Sun is ſuppoſed exterior to the Orbits of thoſe two Planets.

26. All theſe Phænomena of the Planets plainly prove, that the Earth holds that Place in the Heavens which the preſent Philoſophy aſſigns her; but to ſhew moreover that ſhe has not only a Place among the Planets, but likewiſe that ſhe is carried in the ſame Manner with them about the Sun, we need only obſerve, that the Times in which theſe Phænomena happen to the Planets are no ways ſuch as they would be were the Earth at Reſt, but ſuch as they muſt neceſſarily be ſuppoſing the Earth's Period about the Sun to be in $365\frac{1}{4}$ Days.

27. For Example: Suppoſe *Venus* at any Time in Conjunction with the Sun at V, then were the Earth at Reſt at T, that very Conjunction would happen again when *Venus* had made juſt one Revolution, that is, in 225 Days; but every one knows this is contrary to Experience, for a much longer Time than that lapſes between

XI. FOURTHLY, In this Diſpoſition of the Planets they will all of them be ſometimes much nearer to the Earth than at others; the Conſequence of which is, that their Brightneſs and Splendor, and alſo their *apparent Diameters*, will be proportionally greater at one Time than another: And this we obſerve to be true every Day. Thus the

between two Conjunctions of the ſame Kind; as there evidently muſt, if we ſuppoſe the Earth to have a Motion towards the ſame Parts in the ſame Time; becauſe then, 'tis plain, when *Venus* comes again to V, the Earth will have paſſed in that Time from T to ſome other Part of the Orbit, and from this keeps moving on till *Venus* gets again between it and the Sun.

28. What this Surplus of Time is, may be eaſily eſtimated, by ſuppoſing the Earth to be at Reſt in her Orbit, and *Venus* to move with the Difference of their mean Motions. Thus the daily mean Motion of the Earth is 59′ 8″, and the daily mean Motion of *Venus* is 1° 36′ 8″. The Difference of theſe mean Motions is 37′; therefore ſay, As 37′ is to the whole Circle or 360° = 21600′, ſo is 1 Day to 583 Days, the Time between two Conjunctions as required, *viz.* 1 Year and 218 Days, in which Time *Venus* performs a little more than 2½ Revolutions. In the ſame Manner the Time may be found for any of the other Planetary Conjunctions, Oppoſitions, Stations, Retrogreſſions, *&c.*

27. Theſe Arguments are plain, and eaſy to be underſtood; moſt of them require no more than common Obſervation, that is, in other Words, *common Senſe*. To be ignorant of the Truths here ſpecified, is to ſhew an unaccountable Inattention to the moſt obvious and glaring Phænomena of Nature: And if People are not convinced by theſe Proofs, it is not becauſe they *cannot*, but becauſe they *will not*; and therefore, *Si Populus vult decipi, decipiatur.*

the apparent Diameter of *Venus*, when greateſt, is near 66 Minutes, but when leaſt not more than 9 Minutes and a half; of *Mars*, when greateſt, it is 21 Minutes, but when leaſt no more than 2 Minutes and a half; whereas by the *Ptolomean* Hypotheſis they ought always to be equal.

XII. THE *fifth* is, That when the Planets are viewed with a good Teleſcope they appear with *different Phaſes*, or with different Parts of their Bodies enlightened. Thus *Venus* is ſometimes *new*, then *horned*, after that *dichotomiſed*, then *gibbous*, afterwards *full*; and ſo increaſes and decreaſes her Light, in the ſame manner as the Moon, and as the *Copernican Syſtem* requires.

XIII. THE *ſixth* is, That the Planets, all of them, do ſometimes appear *direct* in Motion, ſometimes *retrograde*, and at other times *ſtationary*. Thus *Venus*, as ſhe paſſes from her greateſt Elongation Weſtward to her greateſt Elongation Eaſtward, will appear *direct in Motion*, but *retrograde* as ſhe paſſes from the latter to the former; and when ſhe is in thoſe Points of greateſt Diſtance from the Sun, ſhe ſeems for ſome time *ſtationary*: All which is neceſſary upon the *Copernican Hypotheſis*, but cannot happen in any other.

XIV. THE

XIV. THE *ſeventh* is, That the Bodies of *Mercury* and *Venus*, in their lower Conjunctions with the Sun, are *hid behind the Sun's Body*; and, in the upper Conjunctions, are ſeen to paſs over the Sun's Body or Diſk in form of a *black round Spot*: Which is neceſſary in the *Copernican*, but impoſſible in the *Ptolomean* Syſtem.

XV. THE *eighth* is, That the Times in which theſe *Conjunctions*, *Oppoſitions*, *Stations*, and *Retrogradations* of the Planets happen, are not ſuch as they would be, were the Earth at reſt in its Orbit; but preciſely ſuch as would happen, were the Earth to move, and all the Planets in the Periods above aſſigned them: And *therefore this, and no other, can be the true Syſtem of the World*; and it will ſtand the eternal Teſt of future Ages, for, MIGHTY IS THE FORCE OF TRUTH, AND SHALL PREVAIL.

BUT though the Planets all move round the Sun in Orbits commonly ſuppoſed *circular*, yet are they not exactly ſo, but *elliptical*, or in form of an ELLIPSIS, which Figure is vulgarly called an *Oval*, as A B P D, deſcribed about two Centres S, F, called the *Foci*, or *Focal Points* of the Ellipſe. The Point C is the Centre; A P the Axis, or longeſt Diameter; and B D the

the ſhorteſt Diameter: And in one of theſe Focus's, *viz.* S, the Sun is placed, about which the Planet moves in the Orbit A B P D (CXL).

HENCE,

(CXL) 1. We have hitherto conſidered the Phænomena of the Heavenly Bodies without regard to the accurate Form of their Orbits, which is not *circular*, but *elliptical*; yet that it is very little ſo, even in the moſt eccentric Orbit, as that of *Mercury*, will appear by comparing their Eccentricities with their mean Diſtances from the Sun. Thus ſuppoſe the mean Diſtance of the Earth from the Sun be divided into 1000 equal Parts, then in thoſe Parts we have,

In *Mercury*,	C S	:	D S	::	80 : 387	:: 1 : 4,84
Venus,	C S	:	D S	::	5 : 723	:: 1 : 144,6
Earth,	C S	:	D S	::	17 : 1000	:: 1 : 59
Mars,	C S	:	D S	::	141 : 1524	:: 1 : 10,8
Jupiter,	C S	:	D S	::	250 : 5201	:: 1 : 20,8
Saturn,	C S	:	D S	::	547 : 9538	:: 1 : 17,4

Pl. LVI. Fig. 3.

2. It is found by Experience that the Orbits of the Planets are quieſcent, or that the Line of the *Apſides* A P always keeps one and the ſame Poſition with reſpect to the Fixed Stars: And the *Aphelium*, or Point A, poſſeſſes different Points in the Ecliptic in the ſeveral Orbits as follows.

		°	′	″			°	′	″
In *Mercury*,	♐	12	44	00	In *Mars*,	♍	0	31	54
Venus,	♒	4	19	54	*Jupiter*,	♎	9	9	54
Earth,	♑	8	1	10	*Saturn*,	♐	27	49	54

3. That the Earth's Orbit is elliptical is well known from common Experience; for were the Orbit circular, the Sun's apparent Diameter would always be the ſame; but we find it is not, for if it be meaſured with a Micrometer in Winter-time, it will be found conſiderably larger than in the Summer, and it will be greateſt of all when the Sun is in the 8° of ♑, (which ſhews that

is

HENCE, when the Planet is in the Point P, it is nearest the Sun, which Point is, for

is the Place of the *Aphelium*) it being then 32′ 47″; whereas when the Sun is in the 8° of ♎, his Diameter is but 31′ 48″.

4. Hence it is evident that the Sun is really nearer to us in the Midst of Winter than in the Midst of Summer; but this seems a Paradox to many, who think the Sun must needs be hottest when it is nearest to us, and that the Sun is apparently more distant from us in *December* than in *June*. As to the Sun's being hotter, 'tis true it is so to all those Places which receive his Rays directly or perpendicularly, but we find his Heat abated on Account of the Obliquity of the Rays, and his short Continuance above the Horizon at that Time. And as to his Distance, it is only with respect to the Zenith of the Place, not the Centre of the Earth; since it is plain, the Sun may approach the Centre of the Earth, at the same Time that it recedes from the Zenith of any Place.

5. Agreeable to the Sun's nearer Distance in the Winter, we observe his apparent Motion is then quicker than in Summer; for in the 8° of ♑ it is about 61′ *per* Day, but in the 8° of ♎ his Motion is but 57′ *per* Day. Accordingly we find the Summer Half-Year 8 Days longer than the Winter Half-Year, as appears by the following Computation.

SUMMER *Half-Year includes*		WINTER *Half-Year includes*	
In *March*,	9½ Days.	In *September*	6 Days.
April	30	*October*	31
May	31	*November*	30
June	30	*December*	31
July	31	*January*	31
August	31	*February*	28
September	24	*March*	21½
Summer-Half	186½		178½
Winter-Half	178½		
The Difference	8 Days.		

for that Reaſon called the *Perihelion*: Here, therefore, the Attraction of the Sun is ſtrongeſt,

6. For the Sun's attracting Force being one Part of the Cauſe of the Planet's Motion, and this Force always increaſing and decreaſing in the inverſe Ratio of the Squares of the Diſtances, 'tis evident the Velocity of the Planet will always be greater the nearer it is to the Sun, and *vice verſa*. Hence the Motion of a Planet is every where unequable, being conſtantly accelerated as it paſſes from A by D to P, and in the other Half from P to A it is retarded.

7. Yet is this unequal Motion of a Planet regulated by a certain immutable Law, from which it never varies, which is, *That a Line drawn from the Centre of the Sun to the Centre of the Planet does ſo move with the Planet about the Sun, that it deſcribes elliptic Areas always proportional to the Times.* That is, if when the Planet moves ſloweſt it deſcribes the Arch A *a* in a given Time, and when it moves quickeſt it deſcribes the Arch *b* P in the ſame Time, then will the trilineal Area A S *a* be equal to the other trilineal Area *b* S P.

Pl. LVI. Fig. 4. 8. To demonſtrate this, let the Time in which the Planet moves through the Periphery of its Orbit be divided into equal Parts, and ſuppoſe that in the firſt Part it deſcribed any Right Line A B, by the Projectile Force in any Direction and the Centripetal Force conjointly; then in the ſecond Part of Time it would proceed in the ſame Right Line to *c*, if nothing prevented; ſo that B *c* = A B, as is manifeſt from the firſt *Law of Motion*.

9. Draw the Right Lines S B, S *c*, and the Triangles A B S and B *c* S will be equal, as having equal Baſes A B, B *c*, and the ſame Altitude of the Vertex S. But when the Body comes to B, let the centripetal Force act with a new Impulſe either equal to the former or unequal, and let it cauſe the Body to decline from the Right Line B *c*, and deſcribe the Right Line B C; draw C *c* parallel to B S, meeting B C in C; and at the

ſtrongeſt, his Light and Heat greateſt, and his apparent Diameter largeſt; and in this Point

at C, and in the ſame Plane with the Triangle A S B. Join S C, and becauſe of the Parallels S B, C *c*, the Triangle S B C will be equal to the Triangle S B *c*, and therefore equal to the Triangle S A B. By the ſame Way of Reaſoning, if the centripetal Force act ſucceſſively in the Points C, D, E, cauſing the Body in each equal Part of Time to deſcribe the Right Lines C D, D E, E F, *&c.* the Triangles S C D, S D E, S E F, *&c.* will be equal, and all in the ſame Plane.

10. In equal Times, therefore, equal Areas are deſcribed; and by Compoſition of Ratios, any Sums of Areas S A D S, S A F S, are to each other as the Times in which they are deſcribed. Let now the Number of Triangles be increaſed, and their Breadth be diminiſhed *in infinitum*; then will their Perimeter A D F be ultimately a Curve. And therefore the centripetal Force, by which the Body is drawn perpetually from the Tangent of this Curve, acts inceſſantly; and the Areas deſcribed are alſo in this Caſe proportional to the Times of their Deſcription.

11. Hence the Velocity of the revolving Body or Planet is every where inverſely as the Perpendicular let fall from the Centre S to the Tangent of the Orbit in the Place of the Planet. For the Velocities in the Points A, B, C, *&c.* are as the Baſes of the Triangles A B, B C, C D, *&c.* as being the Spaces deſcribed in the ſame Time; and the Baſes of equal Triangles are reciprocally as their perpendicular Altitudes; and therefore ſince in the evaneſcent Triangles A S B, A S C, *&c.* the Right Lines A *c*, B *d*, C *e*, *&c.* become Tangents to the Curve in the Points A, B, C, *&c.* 'tis manifeſt the Velocity in thoſe Points will be inverſely as a Perpendicular from S let fall upon thoſe Tangent Lines produced.

12. Hence alſo it follows, that the Times in which equal Arches are deſcribed in any Planetary Orbit are

Point the Planet muſt conſequently move with the greateſt Velocity. But in the Point directly as thoſe Perpendiculars, becauſe they are inverſely as the Velocities.

13. If two Chords of very ſmall Arches deſcribed in the ſame Time AB, BC, and DE, EF, be compleated into the Parallelograms ABCV and FEDZ, and the Diagonals BV and EZ be drawn; then will thoſe Lines tend to the Sun or Centre S, and be proportional to the centripetal Force: For the Motion BC and EF is compounded of BV, Bc, and EZ, Ef; but BV = Cc, and EZ = Ff; but Cc and Ff were generated by the Impulſes of the centripetal Force in B and E, and are therefore proportional to them; and conſequently ſo are BV and EZ.

14. Draw the Diagonal AC, and it will biſect the Line BV in *b*; conſequently the *Sagitta* B*b* is as the centripetal Force by which the Arch ABC is deſcribed, whoſe Chord is AC.

Pl. LVI. Fig. 5. 15. Hence if a Body revolve in any Curve AP about an immoveable Centre S, the Force in any Point P will be to that in any other Point *p* as $\frac{QR}{SP^2 \times QT^2}$ to $\frac{qr}{Sp^2 \times qt^2}$; for the *Sagittæ* QR, *qr*, (which call S, *s*,) are as the centripetal Forces (F, *f*,) in P and *p*, when the Times (T, *t*,) are given, (by the laſt) that is, S : *s* :: F : *f*. But when the Forces are given, the *Sagittæ* will be as the Squares of the Times, *viz.* S : *s* :: TT : *tt*. Therefore when neither the Times nor the Forces are the ſame, it will be $S : s :: F \times T^2 : f \times t^2$; and ſo $\frac{S}{T^2} : \frac{s}{t^2} :: F : f$. And becauſe the elliptic Areas SQP and S*qp* are as the Times in which they are deſcribed, therefore when the Arches PQ and *pq* are indefinitely ſmall, we have $T : t :: \frac{1}{2} SP \times QT : \frac{1}{2} Sp \times qt :: SP \times QT : Sp \times qt$. Conſequently we have, as $F : f :: \frac{QR}{SP^2 \times QT^2} : \frac{qr}{Sp^2 \times qt^2}$.

16. Let

Point A, where the Planet is fartheſt diſtant from the Sun, (for that Reaſon call'd the

16. Let SY be a Perpendicular let fall from S upon the Tangent PR produced; then will the centripetal Force be as $\frac{QR}{SY^2 \times QP}$, becauſe the Rectangle $SY \times QP = SP \times QT$; for the evaneſcent Arch QP is coincident with the Tangent PR, and may therefore be eſteemed as the Baſe of the Triangle SPQ, whoſe Area is either $\frac{1}{2} SP \times QT$, or $\frac{1}{2} QP \times SY$; therefore $SP \times QT = QP \times SY$. Which was to be ſhewn.

17. If the Orbit were a Circle, as PQVF, and PV a Chord drawn through the Centre of Force S; then drawing the Chord QM in ſuch Manner as it may be biſected in K by the Chord PV, we have $QK^2 = VK \times PK$, (by *Euclid*, III. 35.) but in the vaniſhing State of PK it will be $VK = VP$, and $QR = PK$ (by *Art.* 13.) alſo $QK = QP$, therefore $QP^2 = VP \times QR$, and $PV = \frac{QP^2}{QR}$; whence, in this Caſe, the central Force will be inverſely as $SY^2 \times PV$. Pl. LVI. Fig. 6.

18. Wherefore, ſince the Velocity is as $\frac{1}{SY}$ we have SY^2 as the Square of the Velocity inverſe y; therefore the centripetal Force is as the Square of the Velocity directly, and the Chord PV inverſely.

19. Hence if the curvilinear Figure APQ be given, and any Point S to which the centripetal Force is continually directed, the Law of the centripetal Force may be found, by which any Body P perpetually drawn from a right-lin'd Courſe ſhall be detain'd in the Perimeter of that Figure, and by revo_ving ſhall deſcribe it, *viz.* by computing the Va'ue of the Expreſſion $\frac{QR}{SP^2 \times QT^2}$ or of $SY^2 \times PV$.

20. For Example: *Let a Body P revolve in the Circumference of a Circle, 'tis required to find the Law of the centripetal*

the *Aphelion*) every thing is just the reverse: And in the Points B or D it is in its mean Distance from the Sun.

Now

Pl. LVI. Fig. 6. *centripetal Force tending to any given Point* S. Let PY be a Tangent in the Point P, and SY the Perpendicular, and VP the Chord passing through S. Let VA be the Diameter of the Circle, and join AP. Then is the Triangle SYP similar to the Triangle VAP; as may be shewn from *Eucl.* III. 32. Therefore AV: PV :: SP : SY; consequently $\frac{SP \times PV}{AV} = SY$, and so $\frac{SP^2 \times PV^3}{AV^2} = SY^2 \times PV$, which therefore is as the centripetal Force inversely; but because AV^2 is a given Quantity, we have the said Force reciprocally as $SP^2 \times PV^3$.

21. Again: *Let it be required to find the Law of the centripetal Force by which a Body is moved, so as to describe the equiangular Spiral* PQS *about the Centre* S. In this Case all the Angles are given in every trilineal Area SQP, and therefore also the Ratio of all the Sides in the Figure SPRQT; therefore the Ratio of $\frac{QT}{QR}$ is given, whence $\frac{QT}{QR} \times QT$ is as QT; that is, (because of the given Ratio of QT to PS) $\frac{QT^2}{QR}$ is as SP. And this Ratio will be constant, let the Angle PSQ be changed in any Manner whatsoever: For let $QR = a$, when the Angle PSQ is constant, and $QT = b$; but when it is variable, let $QR = x$, and $QT = y$; then (by *Lem.* 11. of *Princip.*) it will be $a : x :: b^2 : y^2$, whence $\frac{b^2}{a} = \frac{y^2}{x} = \frac{QT^2}{QR}$; which shews that $\frac{QT^2}{QR}$ will always remain the same as at first, *viz.* as SP. Therefore $\frac{QT^2 \times SP^2}{QR}$ will become SP^3; consequently the centripetal Force QR will be inversely as SP^3.

Fig. 7.

22. *Le*

Vol. III. *Plate* LVII. *P.* 151.

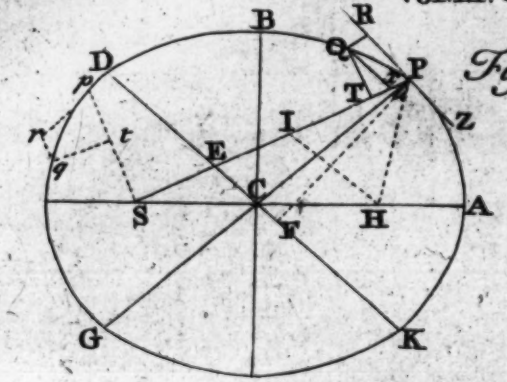


Fig. 1. p. 151.

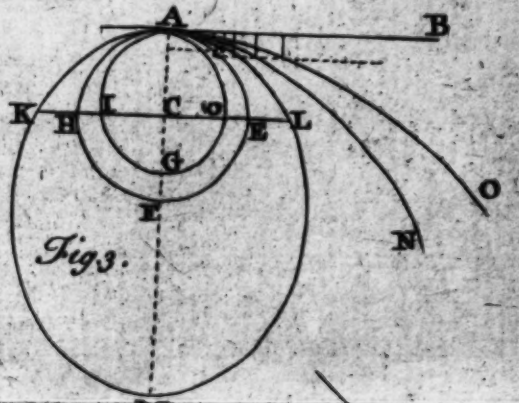


Fig 3.

Fig. 2. p. 153.

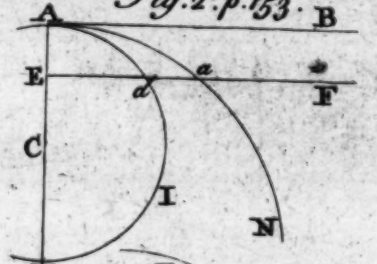


Fig. 4. p. 155.

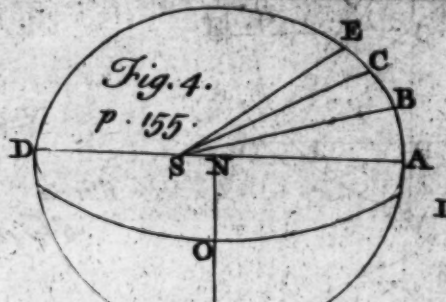


Fig. 5. p. 156.

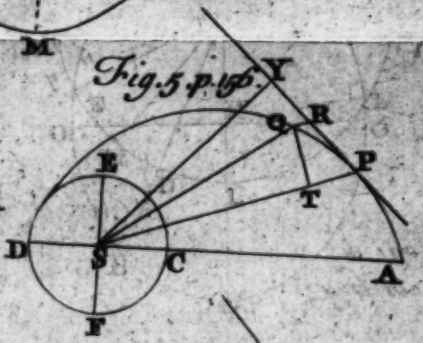


Fig. 6. p. 157.

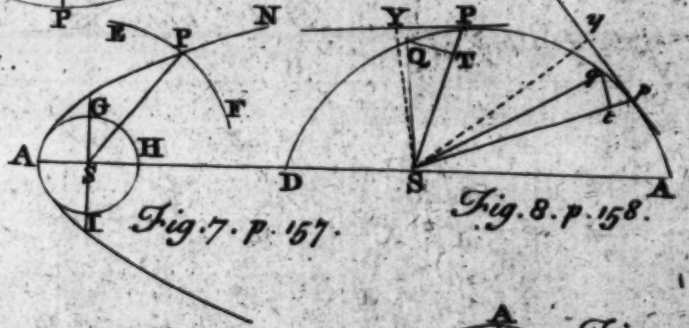


Fig. 7. p. 157.

Fig. 8. p. 158.

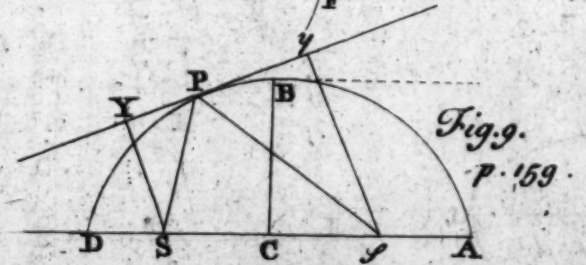


Fig. 9.
p. 159.

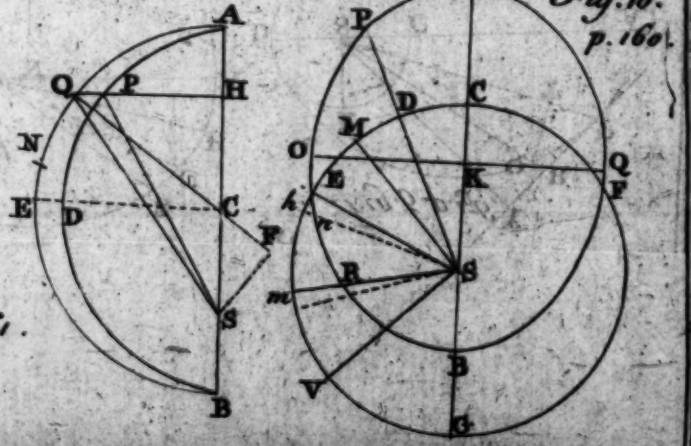


Fig. 11.
p. 161.

Fig. 10.
p. 160.

Now though the Planetary Orbits are really *elliptical*, yet is the *Eccentricity* CS, in

22. *Let a Body revolve in an Ellipſis* APQ, *by a Force every where directed to the Centre* C; *it is required to find the Law of that Force.* Let Q*v* be drawn parallel to the Tangent PR, and PF perpendicular to KC; and parallel to PF join CQ; the reſt as before. The right-angled Triangles QTV and PFC are ſimilar; for the Angle Q*v*C = PCF, (by *Euclid*, XXIX, 1.) therefore QT : Q*v* :: PF : PC; and QT × PC = Q*v* × PF. But QT × PC is equal to twice the Triangle PQC, which is a conſtant Quantity, as being proportional to the conſtant Particle of Time in which it is deſcribed. Alſo in the Ellipſis DK × PF is a conſtant Quantity (*per Conics*). Therefore DK × PF is to QT × PC, or Q*v* × PF, that is, DK to Q*v*, in a given Ratio, wherever the Point P is taken in the Ellipſis. Hence alſo the Ratio of DK^2 to Qv^2 is a conſtant one: But in the Ellipſis $DK^2 : Qv^2 :: PG^2 : Pv \times vG$ (*per Conics.*) Now becauſe Q*v* = QR, and the Difference between G*v* and GP is infinitely ſmall, therefore P*v* × *v*G = QR × PG; whence PG^2 is in a conſtant Ratio to PG × QR, that is, QR *or the centripetal Force is every where in a conſtant Ratio to* PG, *or to* PC, *the Diſtance from the Centre.* Pl. LVI. Fig. 8.

23. Hence if the Centre C of the Ellipſis were to go off to an infinite Diſtance, the Ellipſis would be changed into a *Parabola*, in which the Body would move, and the Force now tending to a Centre at an infinite Diſtance would become equable, or the ſame with *Gravity*, according to the Theory of *Galileo*. And if the *Parabola* ſhould be changed into an *Hyperbola*, the Body would move in that Curve by the ſame Law of the Force now changed from a centripetal to a centrifugal one, becauſe now it cauſes the Body to recede from the Centre.

24. Laſtly: *Let it be required to find the Law of the Force tending to one of the Foci of an Ellipſis.* Draw SP to the Focus S, and PH to the Focus H, and HI parallel Pl. LVII. Fig. 1.

in moſt of them, ſo extremely ſmall, as to be almoſt inſenſible; and therefore their Motions

the End of the ſecond Part of Time the Body will be rallel to DK. Now becauſe CS = CH, we have SE = EI; and becauſe the Angle HPZ = SPR, *(per Conics)* and HI parallel to PR, therefore the alternate Angle PHI = PIH, and ſo PI = PH; conſequently $EP = \frac{PS + PH}{2} = AC$, from the Geneſis of an Ellipſis. Let the *Latus Rectum* of the Ellipſis be $L = \frac{2BC^2}{AC}$, (becauſe $2AC : 2BC :: 2BC : L$) and Qv interſect PS in x. Then becauſe $QR = Px$, and the Triangle Pxv ſimilar to the Triangle PEC, we have $Px : Pv :: PE (= AC) : PC$; therefore $QR : Pv :: AC : PC :: L \times QR : L \times Pv$. *(Theorem* I.) Again, $L \times Pv : Gv \times vP :: L : Gv$. *(Theorem* II.) Alſo, $Gv \times vP : Qv^2 :: PC^2 : DC^2$, *(per Conics.) Theorem* III. Again, $Qx^2 : QT^2 :: PE^2 : PF^2$; but when the Points P and Q coincide, it is $Qx^2 = Qv^2$, and $PE^2 = CA^2$; wherefore then $Qv^2 : QT^2 :: CA^2 : PF^2$. Now becauſe $PF \times CD = AC \times BC$, *(per Conics)* therefore $PF^2 \times CD^2 = AC^2 \times BC^2$, and ſo $AC^2 : PF^2 :: CD^2 : BC^2$; conſequently $Qv^2 : QT^2 :: CD^2 : CB^2$. *(Theorem* IV.)

25. Theſe four Theorems ſet ſeparately as below.

THEOREM I. $L \times QR : L \times Pv :: AC : PC$.
II. $L \times Pv : Gv \times vP :: L : Gv$.
III. $Gv \times vP : Qv^2 :: PC^2 : CD^2$.
IV. $Qv^2 : QT^2 :: CD^2 : CB^2$.

It is evident, by joining all the Ratios we have $L \times QR : QT^2 :: AC \times L \times PC^2 \times CD^2 : PC \times Gv \times CD^2 \times CB^2$; but becauſe $AC \times L = 2BC^2$, we have $L \times QR : QT^2 :: 2PC : Gv$. Now when P and Q coincide, $2PC = Gv$, and then $L \times QR = QT^2$; and multiplying each Side by $\frac{SP^2}{QR^2}$, we ſhall have $L \times SP^2 =$

SP²

Motions may be looked upon as *circular*, and as ſuch repreſented in Orreries and Diagrams, without any ſenſible Error.

THE

$\frac{SP^2 \times QT^2}{QR}$. Therefore the centripetal Force is as $L \times SP$ inverſely; or, becauſe L is a given Quantity, it will be directly as $\frac{1}{SP^2}$.

26. I ſhall now ſhew what Ratio the projectile Force which cauſes a Body to deſcribe a *Circle* has to that which *(cæteris paribus)* cauſes the Body to deſcribe any *Conic Section*. Let us aſſume this Ratio to be that of n to 1; and putting $2a$ and $2b$ for the tranſverſe and conjugate Diameters of the Conic Section AN, the Circle AIH, ſuppoſe the right Line EF to move parallel to itſelf, and the Points a and d therein ſo as to deſcribe the Curves AI and AN; and let the Diſtance of that Line from AB be call'd x, *viz.* $AE = x$; and let $2d = AH$ the Diameter of the Circle. Plate LVII. Fig. 2.

27. Now $\sqrt{2dx - xx} = Ed$ in the Circle, and $\frac{b}{a} \times \sqrt{2ax \mp x^2} = Ea$ in the Conic Section. The Fluxions of the Ordinates Ed and Ea, *viz.* $\frac{\overline{d-x} \times \dot{x}}{\sqrt{2dx - xx}}$ and $\frac{a}{b} \times \frac{\overline{a \mp x} \times \dot{x}}{\sqrt{2ax \mp xx}}$, will be as the Velocities in every Point of the Curves in the Direction EF or AB. But theſe Fluxions are as $\frac{d-x}{\sqrt{2d-x}}$ and $\frac{b}{a} \times \frac{a \mp x}{\sqrt{2a \mp x}}$; $\left(\text{dividing by } \frac{\dot{x}}{\sqrt{x}}\right)$ and therefore when EF arrives to AB, or $x = 0$, the Ratio of thoſe Fluxions or Velocities will become that of $\frac{d}{\sqrt{2d}}$ to $\frac{b}{a} \times \frac{a}{\sqrt{2a}}$, or as $\sqrt{d}$ to

THE ORRERY is, therefore, an adequate Repreſentation of the TRUE SOLAR SYSTEM,

to $\frac{b}{\sqrt{a}}$ in the Point A. Wherefore $\sqrt{d} : \frac{b}{\sqrt{a}} :: 1 : n$; whence we have $n\,n\,a\,d = b\,b$.

28. And when $x = d =$ A C, the Diſtance of the Centre of Force, we have $\frac{b}{a}\sqrt{2\,a\,x \mp x\,x} = p = \frac{b\,b}{a}$ become $2\,a\,d \mp d\,d = b\,b = n\,n\,a\,d$. Whence we get $a = \frac{\pm d}{2 - n^2}$ and $b = \frac{\pm n\,d}{\sqrt{2 - n^2}}$. Having therefore the Diameters $2\,a$ and $2\,b$, the Conic Section is given in Specie.

29. Now becauſe Unity, or 1, repreſents the projectile Force to deſcribe a Circle, the Force n may be any other Number greater or leſs to deſcribe a Conic Section. And firſt let $n^2 = 2$; then will $a = \frac{\pm d}{2 - n^2} = \frac{\pm d}{o} =$ Infinite, or the Centre of the Curve will be at an infinite Diſtance from A, and conſequently be the *Parabola* A N.

30. If the Value of n^2 be between 1 and 2, or if n be any Number between 1 and $\sqrt{2}$, then will the Conic Section be an Ellipſe between the Circle A E F H and the Parabola A N, having the Centre of Force C in the upper Focus next A, as the Ellipſe A L M K.

31. But if n be any Number leſs than 1, the Curve will ſtill be an Ellipſe, but within the Circle, having the Centre of Force C in the lower or remote Focus, as the Ellipſis A I G O.

32. Again; if n^2 be greater than 2, or n greater than $\sqrt{2}$, then will a be negative; conſequently the Curve will be an *Hyperbola*, as A O.

33. Laſtly; if $n^2 = o$, then $b = \frac{\pm n\,d}{\sqrt{2 - n^2}} = o$, and $a = \frac{1}{2}d$; that is, if the projectile Velocity be diminiſhed

ad

TEM, and gives a juſt Idea of the *Number*, *Motions*, *Order*, and *Poſitions* of the heavenly Bodies:

ad infinitum, then the Curve or Trajectory will become the Right Line A C; or the Projectile will deſcend directly to the Centre of Force C.

34. Let A = the Area of any Ellipſe, S, *S*, *s*, the Areas of the Sectors A S B, B S C, C S D, *&c.* and T, *T*, *t*, the Times in which they are deſcribed; then we have S : *S* :: T : *T*, and S : *s* :: T : *t*, and ſo on for every Sector through the whole Area. Therefore S : T :: S + *S* + *s* : T + *T* + *t* :: Sum of all the Sectors : Sum of all the Times in which they are deſcribed; ſo is the whole Area A to the periodical Time P of a whole Revolution. Conſequently, $S \times P = T \times A$, and $P = \frac{A \times T}{S}$; and in a given Particle of Time T, we have P as $\frac{A}{S}$. Plate LVII. Fig. 4.

35. By *Art.* 25. we have the principal *Latus Rectum* $L = \frac{QT^2}{QR}$, but in a given Time the centripetal Force QR is as $\frac{1}{SP^2}$; wherefore in a given Time $L : QT^2 \times SP^2$; and ſo $L^{\frac{1}{2}} : QT \times SP : S$, the Sector A S B deſcribed in a given Time. Whence $P : \frac{A}{L^{\frac{1}{2}}}$; therefore $A : P \times L^{\frac{1}{2}}$, that is, *The Area of an Ellipſe is in the Subduplicate Ratio of the* Latus Rectum *and Periodical Time conjointly.*

36. Now let *a* = Tranſverſe Axis, and *b* = Conjugate; then (by *Conics*) *a* : *b* :: *b* : L, and ſo $b^2 = aL$, and $b = a^{\frac{1}{2}} \times L^{\frac{1}{2}}$; whence $ab = a^{\frac{3}{2}} \times L^{\frac{1}{2}}$. But the Rectangle $a \times b$: A, the Area of the Ellipſe (by *Conics*) therefore $a^{\frac{3}{2}} \times L^{\frac{1}{2}} : A : P \times L^{\frac{1}{2}}$ (by *Article* 35.) that is, $a^{\frac{3}{2}} : P$; or, *The Periodical Time is in the Seſquiplicate*

Bodies: But the Proportion of *Magnitude* and *Diſtances* of the Planets is not to be expected

plicate Ratio of the Tranſverſe or greater Axis of the Ellipſe.

37. Hence the Periodical Time will be the ſame in all the Species of an Ellipſis from a Right Line to a Circle deſcribed upon the ſame tranſverſe Diameter; or, more particularly, the Time of deſcribing the Semi-Ellipſe A E D will be the ſame as that of the Semi-Ellipſe A O D; and the ſame alſo as the Time of deſcribing the Semi-Circle A P D, which is only one Species of an Ellipſis, where the Foci coincide with the Centre N, and the Semi-Conjugate N O becomes the Semi-Diameter N P. Laſtly, when the Semi-Ellipſe A O D degenerates into a Right Line A D by diminiſhing the Semi-Conjugate N O *in infinitum*, and the Focus receding to the End of the Axis at D, it is plain the Time of deſcribing the Line A D is ſtill the ſame.

Plate LVII. Fig. 5.

38. The Velocity of the revolving Body P is as $\frac{SY^2}{L}$, S Y being a Perpendicular let fall on the Tangent P Y from the Centre of Force S; for the Velocity is ever as the ſmall Arch Q P deſcribed in a given Time. But Q P = P R, in its evaneſcent State: And becauſe of the Right Angles at T and Y, and the Angle Q P T = Y P S when the Points Q, P, coincide, the evaneſcent Triangle Q P T will be ſimilar to P S Y; and therefore give Q P (= P R) : Q T :: P S : S Y; whence $PR = \frac{SP \times QT}{SY}$. But $SP \times QT : L^{\frac{1}{2}}$; therefore $PR : \frac{L^{\frac{1}{2}}}{SY}$. That is, *The Velocity is in the Subduplicate Ratio of the* Latus Rectum *directly, and the Perpendicular inverſely.*

39. Hence the Velocities in the greateſt and leaſt Diſtances A and D are in the Ratio compounded of the Diſtances

pected from the Orrery, but by Delineation, as in Mr. *Whiſton*'s *Solar Syſtem*; where the ſeveral

Diſtances S A and S D inverſely, in the ſame Figure where L is a given Quantity; becauſe in that Caſe the Diſtances are the Perpendiculars.

40. Therefore if a Circle D E C F be deſcribed at the ſame Diſtance S D, becauſe the Circle is that Species of Ellipſis whoſe *Latus Rectum* is equal to the Diameter 2 D S, and ſince in this Point D the perpendicular Diſtance is the ſame in both, the Velocity of the Body in the Ellipſis at the Point D is to that of a Body deſcribing the Circle in the Subduplicate Ratio of L to 2 D S, or as $\sqrt{L}$ to $\sqrt{2DS}$; and the ſame may be ſhewn with reſpect to the Velocities at the other Point A.

41. To compare the Velocity in the Ellipſe at the mean Diſtance B with that of a Body deſcribing a Circle E F at the ſame Diſtance C B from the common Focus S, let R = Radius of the Circle = A C = C D = S B, and let B = leſſer Semi-Axis B C, which is here equal to the Perpendicular S Y to the Tangent in the Point B. Let the Velocity in the Ellipſe be V, and in the Circle v; and as L = *Latus Rectum* of the Ellipſe, ſo 2 A is that of the Circle; therefore (*Art.* 38.) $V : v :: L^{\frac{1}{2}} \over B : \frac{2A^{\frac{1}{2}}}{A}$, or $V^2 : v^2 :: \frac{L}{B^2} : \frac{2A}{A^2} :: L \times A : 2B^2$. But becauſe (by *Conics*) $A : B :: 2B : L$, therefore $2B^2 = A \times L$: conſequently $V^2 = v^2$, and ſo $V = v$. That is, *The Velocity of the Body in the Ellipſe in the Point* B *is equal to that in the Circle* E F *deſcribed with the mean Diſtance* S B. Plate I. VII. Fig. 6.

42. It has been already ſhewn (*Art.* 29.) that the Velocity of a Body in the Vertex of a *Parabola* is to that in a *Circle* at the ſame Diſtance from the Focus, as $\sqrt{2}$ to 1. And becauſe every thing that has been ſhewn relating to the Motion in an Ellipſe may be demonſtrated alſo of the *Parabola* and *Hyperbola*. (See *Princip.* Fig. 7.

Lib.

ſeveral Orbits of the Planets are laid down in their proportional Diſtances from the Sun;

Lib. I. Prop. XII, XIII.) therefore in the *Parabola* the Velocity will be every where at P as a Perpendicular S Y let fall upon the Tangent P Y reciprocally. And (by *Conics*) $SY^2 : SP$, and ſo $SY : \sqrt{PS}$; therefore, *The Velocity in the Parabola will be every where as* $\frac{1}{\sqrt{SP}}$, *or in the Subduplicate Ratio of the Diſtance inverſely.*

43. We have alſo ſhewn (*Annot.* XXXIV. 13.) in a Circle whoſe Radius is a, P = Periodical Time, V = Velocity, that $V P = a$, and $V = \frac{a}{P}$, and therefore $V^2 = \frac{a^2}{P^2}$; but alſo $P^2 : a^3$, (*ibid.* 11.) whence $V^2 : \frac{a^2}{a^3} : \frac{1}{a}$; therefore $V : \sqrt{\frac{1}{a}}$. Therefore the Velocity (V) in the Circle AGHI is to the Velocity in the Circle EPF deſcribed with the Radius SP, as $\sqrt{\frac{1}{AS}}$ to $\sqrt{\frac{1}{SP}}$; or $V : v :: \sqrt{SP} : \sqrt{AS} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}L}$. But the Velocities in the Points A and P in the *Parabola* alſo are in the ſame Ratio of $\sqrt{SP}$ to $\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}L}$ (by 42.); conſequently, *The Velocity in the Parabola at the Vertex* A *is to the Velocity in the Circle in the ſame Diſtance* AS, *as the Velocity in the Parabola at* P *is to the Velocity in the Circle deſcribed at the ſame Diſtance* SP; *that is, in the Ratio every where of* $\sqrt{2}$ to 1.

44. Again; the Velocity in the Circle whoſe Radius is $\frac{1}{2}$ SP is to the Velocity in a Circle whoſe Radius is SP, as $\sqrt{SP}$ to $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}SP}$, or as $\sqrt{2}$ to 1; conſequently, *The Velocity in the Parabola at* P *is equal to the Velocity in a Circle whoſe Radius is* $\frac{1}{2}$ SP.

Plate LVII. Fig. 8.

45. The angular Velocity of a Body P revolving in any Orbit, that is, the Angle which is made at the Centre

Sun; and their Magnitudes comparatively with each other, and with that of the Sun, expreſs'd

Centre S, *viz.* P S Q, by the *Radius Vector* S P deſcribing in a given Time the Arch P Q, is as Q T directly, and as S P inverſely; that is, the Angle P S Q: $p S q :: \frac{QT}{PS} : \frac{qt}{pS}$. This is eaſy to underſtand when we conſider that any Angle is greater as the Arch P Q or $p q$, deſcribed in a given Time, is ſo; and leſs in Proportion to the Diſtance S P and sp, becauſe the Velocities with which thoſe Arches are deſcribed are inverſely as the Perpendiculars S Y, S y, to the Tangents in thoſe Points; and when the Arches Q P and $q p$ are indefinitely ſmall, we may eſteem them equal to the Lines Q T and $q t$. Whence the Propoſition is evident.

46. Hence the angular Velocity at P and p is as $\frac{1}{SP^2}$ and $\frac{1}{Sp^2}$; for the Sectors P S Q and $p S q$, being deſcribed in the ſame Time, are equal; whence $QT \times SP = qt \times Sp$. Therefore $QT : qt :: Sp : SP$; and hence $\frac{QT}{SP} : \frac{qt}{Sp} :: \frac{Sp}{SP} : \frac{SP}{Sp} :: Sp^2 : SP^2 :: \frac{1}{SP^2} : \frac{1}{Sp^2}$.

46. From the Foci S, s, of the Ellipſe A B D let fall the Perpendiculars S Y, sy, to the Tangent Y y in the Point P; let the centripetal Force tend to the Focus S; and let C B be the Leſſer Semi-Axis. Then will the Velocity (v) in B be to the Velocity (V) in P, in the Ratio of $\sqrt{sP}$ to $\sqrt{SP}$. For $V : v :: CB : SY$ (*Art.* 11.) whence $V^2 : v^2 :: CB^2 : SY^2$. But (by *Conics*) $BC^2 = SY \times sy$; therefore $V^2 : v^2 :: SY \times sy : SY^2 :: sy : SY$. But becauſe of the ſimilar Triangles SPY and sPy, it is $sy : SY :: sP : SP$; wherefore $V^2 : v^2 :: sP : SP$; conſequently $V : v :: \sqrt{sP} : \sqrt{SP}$. Plate LVII. Fig. 9.

47. From what has been ſaid it appears, that the Motion of a Planet in its Orbit is very unequal and

anomalous; and this Anomaly or Irregularity of the Planet's Motion is in itſelf very irregular alſo, being ſometimes more, and ſometimes leſs than at others. And in order to explain this, it will be requiſite to compare it with an equal and uniform Motion of a Body moving in a Circle. Let therefore the Ellipſe AEBP be the Orbit of a Planet, whoſe Focus is S, its greater Axis AB, and leſſer OQ. On the Centre S, and with the Diſtance SE (which is a mean Proportional between AK and OK, the two Semi-Axes) deſcribe the Circle CEGF. The Area of this Circle will be equal to the Area of the Ellipſe, as I have ſhewn in my *Elements of Geometry*.

Plate LVII. Fig. 10.

48. In this Circle let us ſuppoſe a Point to move with an uniform or equal Motion through the Periphery CEGF, in the ſame Time that the Planet deſcribes the Ellipſe; and when the Planet is in its *Aphelium* A, let the circulating Point be in C, and the Motion of this Point will repreſent the equal or mean Motion of the Planet; and the Point will deſcribe round S Areas proportional to the Times, and equal to the elliptic Areas the Planet at the ſame time deſcribes.

49. Let now the equal Motion or angular Velocity in the Circle be CSM, and take the Area ASP equal to the Sector CSM; and then the Place of the Planet in its Orbit will be P; and the Angle MSD, the Difference between the true Motion of the Planet and its mean Motion, is the Equation, and is call'd the *Proſthaphæreſis*, from its being *added to* or *taken from* the mean Motion, to obtain the true or equated Anomaly.

50. Hence the Area ACDP will be equal to the Sector DSM, and therefore proportional to the *Proſthaphæreſis*; and conſequently where this Area is biggeſt, there the *Proſthaphæreſis* or Equation will be greateſt, or a *Maximum*; which evidently happens when the Planet arrives at E, where the Ellipſe and the Circle cut each other. For when the Planet deſcends farther to R, the Equation becomes proportional to the Difference of the Areas ACE and *m*ER, or to the Area GBR*m*; for when the Planet is at R, let the Point be at V, and the Sector CSV will be equal to the elliptic Area ASR, that is, ACE + CERS = CERS + *m*ER

$+mER+mSV$; conſequently $ACE-mER=mSV=mRBG$.

51. In the *Peribelion* the equal Motion and the true Motion of the Planet coincide, becauſe the Semicircle CEG and Semi-ellipſe AEB are equal, and are deſcribed in the ſame Time. As the Planet deſcended from the *Aphelium* A to the *Peribelium* B, its Motion was ſlower, or leſs than the mean Motion; in which Caſe the Equation or *Proſthaphæreſis* is to be *ſubtracted* from the mean Motion, to get the true Motion and Place of the Planet.

52. But during the Aſcent of the Planet from the *Peribelium* B to the *Aphelium* A, its Motion will be quicker than the mean Motion, as might be ſhewn in the ſame Manner as above. In A the Velocity is leaſt of all, and in B greateſt, as we have ſhewn; and in E it is equal to the mean Velocity in the Circle. For when the Planet is in E, let the Point be in m, and let the Area ESn and Sector mSi be deſcribed in the ſame infinitely ſmall Particle of Time, and therefore equal to each other; for $Eh\times Sn=(Eh\times SE=)mi\times mS$; but $SE=mS$, therefore $Eh=mi$; therefore the angular Velocity ESh at E is equal to the angular Velocity mSi, which is the mean Velocity.

53. In order therefore to find the equated or true Anomaly from the Mean, we are to find the Poſition of a Line SP that ſhall cut off the elliptic Area ASP, to which the whole Area of the Ellipſe has the ſame Proportion as the whole Periodical Time of the Planet has to the Time given in which the elliptic Sector was deſcribed. Or if AQB be a Semicircle deſcribed on the longer Axis of the Ellipſe, we muſt draw from S the Line SQ, which ſhall cut off the Area ASQ, to which the Area of the whole Circle is in the above-mentioned Ratio; for then a perpendicular QH will cut the Ellipſe in P, ſo that the Line PS being drawn, the elliptic Area ASP will be to the Sector ASQ as the whole Area of the Ellipſe to that of the Circle, as is ſhewn. Pl. LVII. Fig. 11.

54. To cut an Ellipſe or Circle in this Proportion was the famous Problem long ſince propoſed by *Kepler*, which is ſolved as follows. Upon QC, produced if

required, let fall the Perpendicular S F; the Area A S Q is equal to the Sector A C Q and the Triangle Q S C, that is, equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ Q C × A Q + $\frac{1}{2}$ Q C × S F; and becauſe $\frac{1}{2}$ Q C is a conſtant Quantity, the Area A S Q will be proportional to A Q + S F. Hence if we take the Arch Q N = S F, we have the Arch A N proportional to the Time or mean Anomaly of the Planet; which we can eaſily find by having the true Anomaly given.

55. For Example; in the Orbit of *Mars* we have Q C : S C :: 152369 : 14100; and becauſe the Length of an Arch equal to Radius is 57°,29578, ſay,

As the Radius	Q C = 152369	= 5.182985
Is to the Eccentricity	S C = 14100	= 4.149229
So is the Length of the Arch	57°,29578	= 1.758078
To the Length of an Arch B,	5°,302	= 0.724312

Then ſay,

As Radius S C	90°00	= 10.00000
Is to the Sine S F of the Angle S C F = A C Q, which ſuppoſe	30°00	= 9.698970
So is the Length of the Arch B	= 5°,302	= 0.724312
To that of the Arch Q N = S F	= 2°,651	= 0.423282

56. Therefore A Q + Q N = 30° + 2°,651 = 32° 39′ 3″. Thus from the eccentric Anomaly A C Q we gain the mean Anomaly A Q + Q N = A N, which is proportional to the Time; and the reverſe of this, *viz.* from the mean Anomaly A N given, to find the eccentric Anomaly A C Q, is to be done by the Method of *Infinite Series*, as follows. Let the Arch N Q = y, the Sine of the Arch A N be = e, the Co-ſine = f, and the Eccentricity S C = g. The Sine of the Arch A Q is equal to the Sine of the Arch A N — N Q, equal to the Sine of the Arch A N — y, which Sine is thus expreſſed by a Conv. Series, $e - \frac{fy}{1} - \frac{ey^2}{1.2} + \frac{fy^3}{1.2.3} - \frac{ey^4}{1.2.3.4}$, &c. as Dr. *Keill* has ſhewn in his *Trigonometry*.

57. Call

57. Call that Series s, then Radius (1) : Sine of AQ (s) :: SC (g) : SF $= (y)$ NQ; therefore $y = gs = ge - \frac{gfy}{1} - \frac{gey^2}{1.2} + \frac{gfy^3}{1.2.3} + \frac{gey^4}{1.2.3.4}$, &c. Consequently we have $ge = y + \frac{gfy}{1} + \frac{gey^2}{1.2} - \frac{gfy^3}{1.2.3} - \frac{gey^4}{1.2.3.4}$, &c. Let $ge = z$, $\sqrt{1+fg} = a$, $\frac{ge}{2} = b$, $\frac{gf}{1.2.3} = c$, $\frac{ge}{1.2.3.4} = d$, and the Equation will become $z = ay + by^2 - cy^3 - dy^4$, &c. which reverted gives $y = \frac{1}{a}z - \frac{b}{a^3}z^2 + \frac{2b^2+ac}{a^5}z^3 - \frac{5abc-5b^3+a^2d}{a^7}z^4$, &c,

Or, by ſubſtituting the Values of b and d, $y = \frac{1}{a}z - \frac{1}{2a^3}z^2 + \frac{c}{a^4}z^3 - \frac{5c}{2a^6}z^5$, &c.

58. But if the Arch AN be greater than 90 Degrees, and leſs than 270, then $ge = z = y - \frac{gfy}{1} + \frac{gey^2}{2} + \frac{gfy^3}{6} - \frac{gey^4}{24}$, &c. And then $a = 1 - fg$, and $y = \frac{z}{a} - \frac{z^2}{2a^3} + \frac{cz^3}{a^4}$, &c. This Series expreſſes the Arch QN in Parts, whereof the Radius contains 100,000; but to have it in Degrees and Parts of a Degree, ſay, As Radius (1) is to this Series (s), ſo is the Radial Arch 57°, 29578 (R) to QN $= y$ in Degrees; that is, $y = sR = \frac{R}{a}z - \frac{R}{2a^3}z^2 + \frac{Rc}{a^4}z^3$, &c.

59. Now the very firſt Term of this Series $\frac{R}{a}z$ is ſufficient to determine the Anomaly of the Eccentricity in almoſt all the Planets nearly enough; for in the Earth's Orbit, where CQ : CS :: 1 : 0,01691, the Error is only a 10,000 Part of a Degree. For Example, Let the Arch AQ $= 30°$;

Then { The Log. of the Eccentricity CS = g = .8.228144
The Log. of the Sine of AN = e = 30° = 9.698970
The Log. of Radial Arch R = 57°,295 = 1.758122

The Sum is the Log. $g e \times R$, or $R z$ = 9.685236
Subduct the Log. of $a = 1 + fg$ = 0.006314

There remains the Log. of $\frac{Rz}{a} = y$ = 0,4774 = 9.678922

But 0,4774 Parts of a Degree are equal to 28′ 38″; therefore A N — N Q = 30° — 28′ 38″ = 29° 31′ 22″ = A Q or Angle A C Q, the eccentric Anomaly. In the Triangle Q C S, having two Sides Q C and C S, and the included Angle given, we find the Angle C S Q = 29° 3′ 7″.

60. Now making 2 C S = S H Radius, we have Q H : P H (:: C E (= A C) : C D) :: Tangent of A S Q : Tangent of A S P = 29° 2′ 54″, the equated or co-equated Anomaly required. And that this is sufficiently near the Truth, let us see the Value of the second Term of the Series, *viz.* $\frac{Rz^3}{2a^3}$.

Thus, the Logarithm of $\frac{z}{a}$ = .7.920800
Multiply by - - —— —— 2

The Product is the Logarithm of $\frac{z^2}{a^2}$ = .5.841600
Add the Logarithm of $\frac{Rz}{a}$ = 9.678922

The Sum is the Logarithm of $\frac{Rz^2}{a}$ = .5.520522
Subduct the Logarithm of 2 = 0.301030

The Logarithm of the second Term $\frac{Rz^3}{2a^3}$ .5.219492

To which Logarithm answers the Number 0,000016, or the $\frac{1}{62500}$ Part of a Degree; too small to be regarded.

expreſs'd by the outmoſt Circle of the Scheme (CXLI).

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garded. And in the Orbit of *Mars* and *Mercury* the two firſt Terms $\frac{Rz}{a} - \frac{Rz,}{2a^3}$ will determine the Value of y to more than any neceſſary Degree of Exactneſs.

(CXLI) 1. The ORRERY (though a modern Name) has ſomewhat of Obſcurity in reſpect of its Origin, or Etymology; ſome Perſons deriving it from a *Greek* Word which imports to *ſee* or *view*, becauſe in it the Motions of the heavenly Bodies are all repreſented to the View, or made evident by Inſpection: but others ſay that Sir *Richard Steele* firſt gave this Name to an Inſtrument of this Sort, which was made by Mr. *Rowley* for the late Earl of *Orrery*, and ſhew'd only the Movement of one or two of the Heavenly Bodies. From hence many People have imagined that this Machine owed its Invention to that Noble Lord.

2. But the Invention of ſuch Machines as we now call ORRERIES, and PLANETARIUMS, is of a much earlier Date. The firſt we have any Mention of is that of *Archimedes*, generally called *Archimedes*'s SPHERE; though it was more than what we now-a-days call a SPHERE, which is an Inſtrument conſiſting only of large and ſmall Circles artfully put together; but this famous Machine of *Archimedes* was of a more complex Nature, and conſiſted of a Sphere, not of Circles, but of an hollow globular Surface of Glaſs, within which was a Piece of Mechaniſm to exhibit the Motions of the Moon, the Sun, and the Five Planets. This *Cicero* aſſerts in his *Tuſculan Queſtions*.

3. But the moſt copious and accurate Deſcription of this Sphere is that of *Claudian*, in *Latin Verſe*. Thus the Poet ſings:

Jupiter in parvo cum cerneret æthera vitreo,
Riſit, & ad Superos talia dicta dedit.
Huccine mortalis progreſſa potentia curæ?
Jam meus in fragili luditur orbe labor.

THE principal Uſe of the Orrery is to render the Theory of the *Earth* and the *Moon*

Jura poli, rerumque fidem, legeſque Deorum,
Ecce Syracuſius tranſtulit arte ſenex.
Incluſus variis famulatur ſpiritus aſtris,
Et vivum certis motibus urget opus.
Percurrit proprium mentitus Signifer annum,
Et ſimulata novo Cynthia menſe redit.
Jamque ſuum volvens audax induſtria mundum
Gaudet, & humanâ ſidera mente regit.
Quid falſo inſontem tonitru Salmonea miror?
Æmula Naturæ parva reperta manus.

4. This Machine appears from hence to have been ſufficiently grand and univerſal, as comprehending all the Heavenly Bodies, and exhibiting all their proper Motions; which is all that can be ſaid of our common modern Orreries. 'Tis true, this Orrery of *Archimedes* was contrived to repreſent the *Ptolomaic* Syſtem; but the Mechaniſm and Nature of the Inſtrument is the ſame, whether the Syſtem of *Ptolomy* or *Copernicus*, or any other be repreſented by it.

5. The next Orrery we have any mention of is that of *Poſidonius* the *Stoic*, in *Cicero*'s Time, 80 Years before our Saviour's Birth: Concerning which the Orator, in his Book *De Nat. Deorum*, has the following Paſſage.—*Quid ſi in Scythiam, aut in Britanniam, Sphæram aliquis tulerit hanc, quam nuper familiaris noſter effecit Poſidonius, cujus ſingulæ converſiones idem efficiunt in Sole, & in Luna, & in quinque Stellis errantibus, quod efficitur in Cœlo ſingulis diebus & noctibus; quis in illa barbaria dubitet, quin ea Sphæra ſit perfecta Ratione?* That is, "If any Man ſhould carry this Sphere of *Poſidonius* "into *Scythia* or *Britain*, in every Revolution of which "the Motions of the Sun, Moon, and Five Planets "were the ſame as in the Heavens each Day and Night, "who in thoſe barbarous Countries could doubt of its "being finiſhed (not to ſay actuated) by perfect Rea-"ſon?" What can be a more genuine Account of a compleat Orrery than this? And, by the way, what would *Cicero* ſay, were he now to riſe from the Grave, and

Moon eaſy and intelligible; and to evidence to our Senſes how all thoſe Appearances happen,

and ſee his *Barbarous Britain* abounding in Orreries of various Kinds and Sizes?

6. From this Time we hear no more of Orreries and Spheres, till about 510 Years after *Chriſt*, when the famous *Severinus Boethius*, the *Chriſtian* (though *Roman*) Philoſopher, is ſaid to have contrived one which *Theodoric* King of the *Goths* wrote to him about, and deſired it for his Brother-in-Law *Gundibald* King of *Burgundy*; in which Letter he calls it *Machinam Mundo gravidam,—Cœlum geſtabile,—Rerum Compendium*; that is, *a Machine pregnant with the Univerſe,—a portable Heaven,—a Compendium of all Things*. What more can be ſaid of our Orreries?

7. After this ſucceeded a long Interval of Barbariſm and Ignorance, which ſo deluged the Literary World, that we find no Inſtances of Mechaniſm of any Note till the Sixteenth Century, when the Sciences began again to revive, and the Mechanical Arts to flouriſh. Accordingly we meet with many Pieces of curious Workmanſhip about this Time; and in the Aſtronomical Way particularly is the ſtately Clock in his Majeſty's Palace at *Hampton-Court*, made in *Henry* the Eighth's Time, *A. D.* 1540, by one *N. O.* This ſhews not only the Hour of the Day, but the Motion of the Sun and the Moon through all the Signs of the Zodiac, with other Matters depending thereon; and is therefore to be eſteemed a Piece of Orrery-Work.

8. Such another is mentioned by *Heylin* at the Cathedral of *Lunden* in *Denmark*; but the moſt conſiderable at this Time is that Piece of Clock-work in the Cathedral of *Struſburg* in *Alſace*; in which, beſides the Clock-Part, is the Celeſtial Globe or Sphere, with the Motions of the Sun, Moon, Planets, and Fix'd Stars, *&c.* It was finiſhed in the Year 1574, and is much ſuperior to that pompous Clock at *Lyons*, which alſo contains an Orrery-Part.

9. About the Beginning of the Seventeenth Century this Sort of Mechaniſm began to be greatly in Vogue,

happen, which depend on the *annual* or *diurnal Rotation* of the *Earth*, and the *monthly Revolutions*

and Spheres and Orreries were now no uncommon Things; though Orreries bore an exceſſive Price till very lately. The firſt large one made in *London* by Mr. *Rowley* was purchaſed by King *George* I. at the Price of 1000 Guineas; nor has any of that large Sort, which contains all the Movements of Primaries and Secondaries, been ſold for leſs than 300 *l.* at any Time ſince.

10. There have been various Forms invented for this noble Inſtrument, two of which have principally obtain'd, *viz.* the *Hemiſpherical Orrery*, and the *Whole Sphere*; though the Orrery at firſt was made without any Sphere, and with only the Sun and the Earth and Moon revolving about it; but this was too imperfect a State, and they ſoon began to inveſt it, ſome with a *Half-Sphere*, ſome with a *Whole* or *Compleat Sphere*; for otherwiſe it could not be an adequate Repreſentation of the Solar Syſtem.

11. The Hemiſpherical Orrery has been made in greater Numbers than any other, on account of their being made much cheaper and eaſier than thoſe in a Sphere of the ſame Size; there being a vaſt Difference between *placing an Hemiſphere on the Box of an Orrery*, and *diſpoſing an Orrery in a large moveable Sphere*. But then the Idea given us by the former is very unnatural and imperfect; and 'tis ſurpriſing to think they ſhould have ſuch a Run as they had, Mr. *Wright* having made between forty and fifty of that Sort ſince the Death of Mr. *Rowley* his Maſter. And though I incline to think few more of that Form will be made, yet as they have had ſo great a Name, I have thought proper to give the Reader a View of one in a Print.

12. This ill-judged and erroneous Form of an Orrery had this Effect with thoſe who knew the Nature of ſuch Machines very well, that ſome applied themſelves to conſtruct Orreries in a Compleat Sphere, others invented ſuch Inſtruments as ſerved to exhibit the Motions of the

Revolutions of the *Moon:* As, the Variety of Seaſons, the Viciſſitudes and various Lengths

the Heavenly Bodies ſeparately, which they accordingly call'd PLANETARIUMS, LUNARIUMS, *&c.* and others declared againſt all Orreries in general, as giving falſe Ideas of the Syſtem of the World, eſpecially as the Magnitudes and Diſtances of the Heavenly Bodies could not be repreſented by them in their proper Proportions.

13. But they muſt be ſuppoſed to reaſon very weakly, who object an inconſiderable Deficiency in any Inſtrument, againſt its moſt important Uſes. No one ever decried an Air Pump, becauſe an abſolute *Vacuum* was impoſſible by it; or the Uſe of a Teleſcope, becauſe we cannot ſee the Inhabitants of the Planets. And on the other hand, to repreſent the Solar Syſtem by Parts, or in a piece-meal Manner, is little leſs than mangling one of the moſt noble and uniform Parts of Natural Philoſophy. The *Planetarian Scheme* therefore of Dr. *Deſaguliers* ſoon became extinct.

14. An Orrery then, adapted to an Armillary Sphere, is the only Machine that can exhibit a juſt Idea of the true Syſtem of the World, with the diurnal and annual Motions of the Heavenly Bodies; and none but an Orrery of this Kind can do that: Yea furthermore, ſuch an Orrery is capable of exhibiting the *third* Motion of the Earth, by means of the Armillary Sphere; I mean that Motion of the Earth by which the Poles of the World revolve about the Poles of the Ecliptic, and occaſions what is commonly called the *Preceſſion of the Equinoxes*, or more properly the *Retrogreſſion of the Earth's Nodes.*

15. That the Reader may have a proper Idea of this *third* Motion of the Earth and its Axis, I ſhall explain it as follows. Let D C H be a Part of the Earth's Orbit, C its Centre, E C the Axis of the Ecliptic, E its Pole, C P the Axis of the Earth, P its Pole, through the Points E and P draw the great Circle E P A, meeting the Ecliptic A L in A; the Arch P A meaſures the Inclination

Plate LXIV. Fig. 1.

Lengths of Days and Nights, the Manner of Solar and Lunar Eclipſes, the various Phaſes of the Moon, &c.

IN

Inclination of the Axis of the Earth to the Plane of the Ecliptic, *viz.* the Angle P C H, which is found by Obſervation to be about 66° 30′, and therefore its Complemental Arc E P or the Angle P C E = 23° 30′.

16. Through the Pole P from the Point E deſcribe a leſſer Circle P F G, which will be parallel to the Ecliptic; then if the Axis of the Earth be directed at any particular Time to P, it is found by Obſervations of many Years, that it will not conſtantly be directed to the Point P in the Heavens, but will in 72 Years time be directed to ſome other Point Q, ſo that the Arch P Q = 1 Degree; and therefore in the Space of 360 × 72 = 25920 Years, the Point P or Pole of the World will deſcribe the Circle P F G about the Pole of the Ecliptic E, which Revolution is call'd the *Great Year*.

17. The Cauſe of this *Conical Motion* of the Earth's Axis was unknown to all the Aſtronomers and Philoſophers before Sir *Iſaac Newton*'s Time, none of them being able to gueſs from whence it could proceed: But this divine Geometer ſoon inveſtigated the Cauſe thereof, and demonſtrated it to reſult from the Laws of Motion and Gravity, that is, from the *Spheroidical Figure of the Earth*; for were the Earth a perfect Globe, its Axis would always remain Parallel to itſelf, and have no ſuch Motion. See the *Principia*.

18. From this Motion of the Earth's Axis follow ſeveral remarkable *Phænomena*; as *Firſt*, a *conſtant Change of the Pole-Star*; for 'tis evident, if any Star ſhould chance to coincide with the Pole P at any time, it will after 72 Years be left at the Diſtance Q P, or 1 Degree Weſtward, and the Star at Q becomes then the North Pole-Star.

19. *Secondly*, The preſent Polar Star will in time be on the South Part of our Meridian; that is, the Star, which ſuppoſe at preſent at P, will after 12960 Years be at G, which being 47 Degrees (in the Arch of a great

IN my *Orrery*, which is of a peculiar and moſt elegant Structure, the *Earth* in its

great Circle) diſtant from P, will be on the South Part of the Meridian of *London*, which ſuppoſe on the Earth's Surface at *h*. For if T R be the Equator, then the Latitude of *London* T *h* = 51° 30′, and its Complement *h p* = 38° 30′; therefore *g p* — *h p* = 47° — 38° 30′ = 8° 30′ = *g h*, the Diſtance of the preſent North Star towards the South at that Time.

20. *Thirdly*, The Circle E P A paſſing through both the Pole of the Ecliptic and Equator, will be the *Solſtitial Colure*, and A the *Solſtitial Point*, when the Axis of the Earth points to P; but after 72 Years, when it points to Q, then the great Circle E Q B will be the *Solſtitial Colure*, and B the *Solſtice*, for the ſame Reaſon, And hence alſo the *Equinoctial Points* (which are always 90 Degrees diſtant from the *Solſtices*) muſt move in the ſame Time through the ſame Arch, the ſame Way, *viz.* Weſtward.

21. *Fourthly*, Hence 'tis evident, all the Points of the Ecliptic do move backwards, or Weſtwards, through one Degree every 72 Years; which Motion is ſaid to be *in Antecedentia*, and is contrary to the Order of the Signs: As the other Motion, by which the Planets are carried round the Sun, is ſaid to be *in Conſequentia*, or according to the Order of the Signs, *viz.* from *Aries* ♈ to *Taurus* ♉, *Gemini* ♊, *&c.* And this retrograde Motion of the Equinoctial Points is call'd the *Receſſion of the Equinoxes*.

22. *Fifthly*, This Receſſion of the Equinoctial Points, and indeed of the whole Ecliptic, is the Cauſe of the ſlow apparent Motion of the Fixed Stars forwards; for ſince the ſeveral Circles of Longitude by which they are referr'd to the Ecliptic are continually ſhifting backwards, the Stars, which are immoveable, muſt with reſpect to thoſe Circles have their Diſtance, that is, their Longitude, conſtantly increaſing from the firſt Point of *Aries*. Thus all the Conſtellations do continually change their Places at the Rate aforeſaid: The

its annual Motion paſſes round by a Circle, on which is engraved a *Calendar*, and the *Ecliptic*; and the Plate which carries the Earth about has an Index on the oppoſite Part from the Earth, to ſhew the apparent Place of the Sun in the *Ecliptic*, for every Day of the Year; and one Turn of the Winch carries the Earth once round its Axis, and the ſaid Index over the Space of one Day in the Calendar: So that by this means the true Place of the Earth, and the apparent Place of the Sun, alſo the Place and Phaſes of the Moon, may be readily ſhewn for any Day required.

THE *Orrery-Part*, containing the *Wheel-Work*, is placed within a large and moſt beautiful ARMILLARY SPHERE, which turns about upon its Axis, with a fairly-engraved and ſilver'd Horizon, which is alſo moveable every way upon a moſt elegant Braſs Supporter, with four Legs richly wrought; at the Bottom of which is a noble large ſilver'd Plate, with a Box and NEEDLE, and

bright Star of *Aries*, for Inſtance, which in *Hipparchus*'s Time was near the Vernal Equinox, is now removed near a whole Sign or 30° Eaſtward, and is in the Beginning of *Taurus* ♉, and *Taurus* is got into *Gemini* ♊; and thus all the Conſtellations of the Zodiac have changed their Places, and poſſeſs different Signs from what they formerly did.

and COMPASS, with the Names of all the *Points* finely engraven in Words at Length. The Circles of the Sphere are as follow.

THE EQUINOCTIAL, which divides the Sphere into two Parts, *viz.* the *Northern* and the *Southern Hemiſphere*; and is ſo call'd, becauſe when the Sun comes to paſs over it, (as it does twice every Year) the *Days and Nights are then equal.* This Circle is divided into 360 Degrees, call'd the *Right Aſcenſion* of the Sun or Stars.

THE ECLIPTIC is that great Circle which repreſents the apparent annual Path of the Sun through the Heavens. It is divided into 12 equal Parts call'd *Signs*, conſiſting of 30 Degrees each; whoſe *Names* and *Characters* are as follows: 1. *Aries*, the Ram, ♈; 2. *Taurus*, the Bull, ♉; 3. *Gemini*, the Twins, ♊; 4. *Cancer*, the Crab, ♋; 5. *Leo*, the Lion, ♌; 6. *Virgo*, the Virgin, ♍; 7. *Libra*, the Scales, ♎; 8. *Scorpio*, the Scorpion, ♏; 9. *Sagittarius*, the Bowman, ♐; 10. *Capricorn*, the horned Goat, ♑; 11. *Aquarius*, the Waterer, ♒; 12. *Piſces*, the Fiſhes, ♓. The *Ecliptic* interſects the *Equinoctial* in the Beginning of *Aries* and *Libra*, in an Angle of 23 Degrees, 29 Minutes. In this Circle the Longitude of the

the heavenly Bodies is reckoned. The *Ecliptic* is the Middle of

THE ZODIAC, which is a broad ſilver'd *Zone*, encompaſſing the Sphere to five Degrees on each Side the *Ecliptic*; ſo called from the Figures of the ſeveral *Animals*, or *Conſtellations of the Signs*, with which it is adorned and embelliſhed. This Zone comprehends within it the *Paths* or *Orbits* of all the *Planets*.

THE MERIDIAN is a great Circle paſſing through the *Poles*, and cutting the *Equinoctial* at Right Angles; ſo call'd, becauſe when the Sun is upon any Meridian, it makes the *Meridies*, Mid-Day, or Noon, to all Places under it. Of theſe there is one called

THE GENERAL MERIDIAN, within which the whole Sphere turns, and upon which are engraven the *Degrees of Latitude*, beginning and proceeding each way from the Equinoctial to the Poles. To this Circle the Sphere is ſuſpended; and being moveable within the Horizon, the Sphere may be *elevated or rectified for the Latitude of any Place*.

THE HORIZON is that broad ſilver'd Frame, or Circle, which contains the whole Machine, moveable every way within it.

It

It is ſo called becauſe it bounds our Sight in the Heavens, and divides the Sphere into *the upper and lower Hemiſphere*. Upon this Circle are curiouſly engraven the *Ecliptic Signs* and the *Calendar*, for readily finding the Sun's Place for any given Day or Time. On this Circle is alſo reckon'd the *Amplitude of the Sun*, &c.

THE Points where the Ecliptic interſects the Equinoctial are call'd the *Equinoctial Points*, or EQUINOXES, becauſe when the Sun is in them, *the Days and Nights are equal*. As the Sun is in one of them in the *Spring*, it is called the *Vernal Equinox*; and in the other at *Autumn*, it is call'd the *Autumnal Equinox*.

THE Beginning of *Cancer* and *Capricorn* are call'd the *Solſtitial Points*, or the SOLSTICES; which is as much as to ſay, *the Stations of the Sun*, becauſe when the Sun is in thoſe Points, he ſeems *ſtationary*, or *not* to *move* for ſome Days: The firſt is the *Summer*, the other the *Winter Solſtice*.

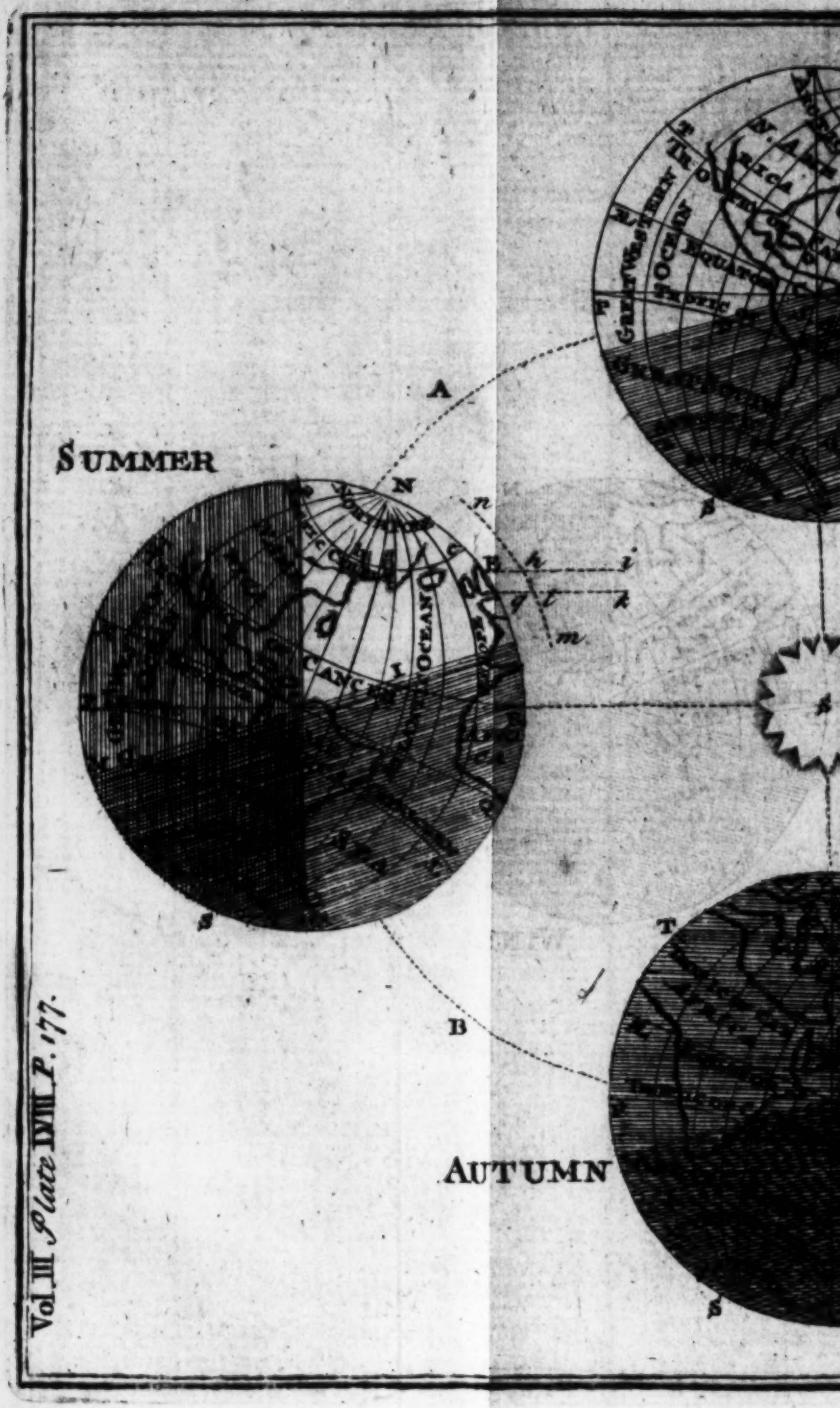
THE Meridians which paſs through the *Points* above-mention'd are call'd the *Equinoctial* and *Solſtitial* COLURES reſpectively. They divide the Sphere into *four Quarters*, in the Middle of the *four Seaſons of the Year*.

THE

THE Leſſer Circles of the Sphere are the TROPICS and POLAR CIRCLES; which are all parallel to the Equinoctial, and are two on either Side. The *Northern Tropic* is that of *Cancer*; the *Southern* that of *Capricorn*; as paſſing through the Beginning of thoſe Signs. They are diſtant from the Equinoctial 23 Degrees, 29 Minutes, and include that Space or Part of the Sphere which is call'd the *Torrid Zone* on the Terreſtrial Globe, becauſe the Sun is at one Time or other perpendicular over every Part, and extremely torrifies or heats it.

WITHIN 23 Deg. 29 Min. of each Pole lie the *Polar Circles*; of which that about the North Pole is call'd the *Arctic Circle*, becauſe of the Conſtellation of the *Bear* in that Part; and the other about the South Pole, the *Antarctic Circle*. They include thoſe Spaces which are call'd the *Frigid Zones*, by reaſon of the intenſe Cold which reigns in thoſe Regions the greateſt Part of the Year. Thoſe Spaces which lie between the Tropics and Polar Circles, on either Side, are call'd the *Temperate Zones*, as enjoying a mean or moderate Degree of Heat and Cold.

THE Circles above are eſſential to the Sphere; beſides which there is the *Quadrant*



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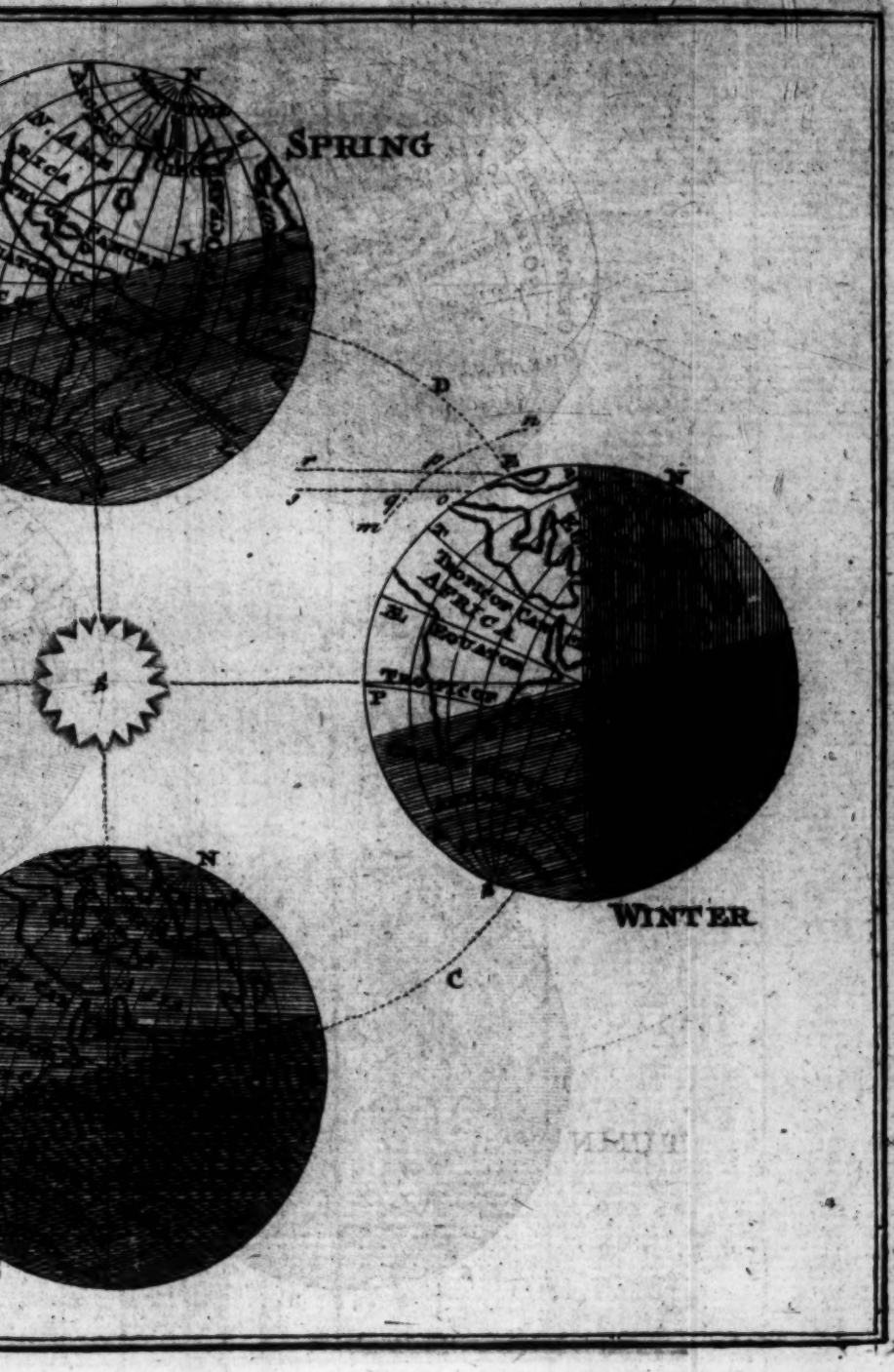

SPRING
N
D
AFRICA
EQUATOR
TROPICK
WINTER
C

rant of Altitude, for ſhewing the Height f any Luminary above the Horizon; and large and moſt beautiful *Horary Circle nd Index*, ſhewing the Time correſponding o the Motion of the Sphere: Alſo the *So- ar Label*, for fixing the Sun to its proper Place in the *Ecliptic*.

IT is eaſy to conceive, that the Sun will lways enlighten *one Half of the Earth*; and hat when the Sun is in the Equinoctial, he Circle which terminates *the enlightened and darkened Hemiſpheres* (which is called *the Circle of Illumination*) will paſs through the *Poles of the Earth*, and alſo divide all the *Parallels of Latitude* into two equal Parts. But ſince the Earth moves not in the Plane of the *Equinoctial*, but that of the *Ecliptic*, the Axis of the Earth will be inclined to that of the *Ecliptic* in an Angle of 23 Degrees 29 Minutes; and therefore the *Circle of Illumination* will, at all other Times, divide the *Parallels of Latitude* into two unequal Parts.

Now ſince any Parallel is the Path or Tract which any Place therein deſcribes in one Revolution of the Earth, or 24 Hours; therefore that Part of the Parallel which lies in *the enlightened Hemiſphere* will repreſent *the Diurnal Arch*, or *Length of the*

Day; and that Part in *the dark Hemiſphere* will be the *Nocturnal Arch*, or *Length of the Night*, in that Parallel of Latitude.

HENCE, when the Orrery is put into Motion, the Earth moving with its Axis always *parallel to itſelf*, yet always *inclined to the Plane of the Ecliptic*, will ſometimes have the *Northern* Parts turned more directly to the Sun, and moſt enlightened; and at other Times the *Southern* Parts will be ſo. Hence various Alterations of *Heat and Cold*, and *Length of Days and Nights*, will enſue in the Courſe of the Revolution of the Earth about the Sun, which will conſtitute all *the Variety of Seaſons*, as will moſt naturally and evidently be ſhewn in the Orrery, as follows (CXLII).

WE

(CXLII) 1. Though theſe Things are plain to a Perſon who has his Eye on an Orrery, while he hears or reads this Account of the Nature and Manner of the Seaſons, and the Variety of Day and Night, yet Ideas of this Sort are not ſo eaſy to be obtained by mere Reading and Cogitation only, unleſs aſſiſted by a proper Diagram or Repreſentation; which therefore I ſhall here ſubjoin and explain.

Pltaa LVIII. 2. Let S be the Sun, A B C D the *Orbis Magnus*, or annual Path of the Earth about the Sun. In this Orbit the Earth is repreſented in *four* ſeveral Poſitions, in the midſt of the four Seaſons reſpectively. On the Earth are drawn the ſeveral Circles and Lines as follow.

Æ C Q The Equator.
T O R The Tropic of *Cancer*.
P M L The Tropic of *Capricorn*.

abc

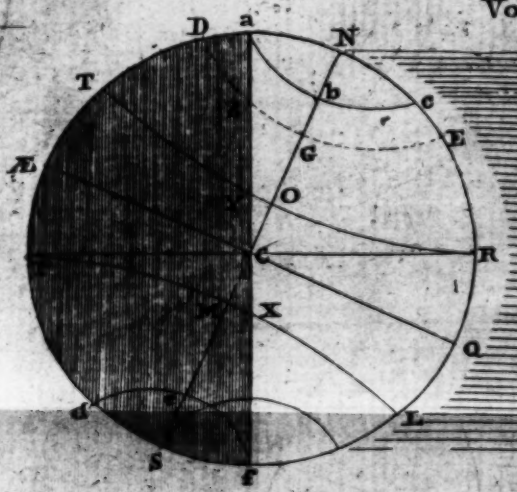


Fig. 1. p. 180.

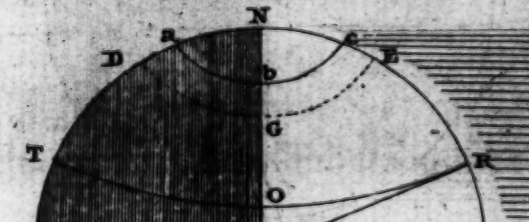


Fig. 2. p. 179.

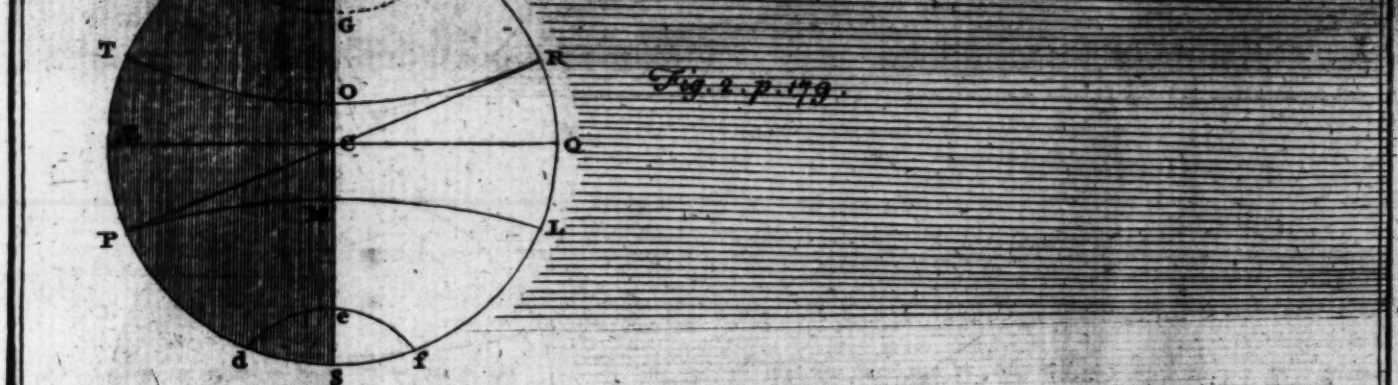


Fig. 2. p. 179.

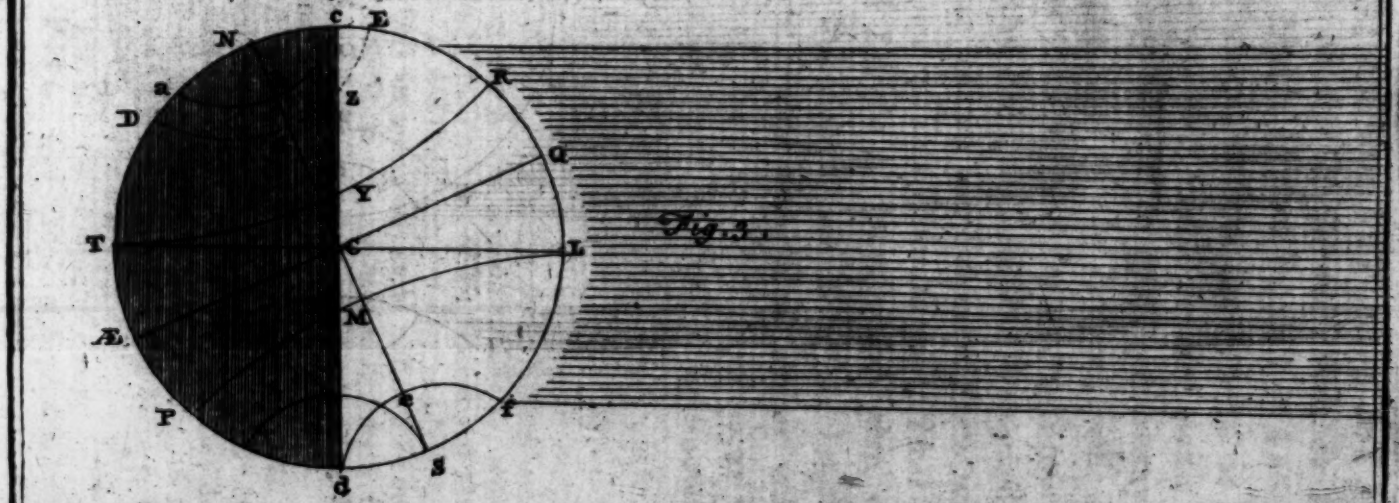


Fig. 3.

WE will first give the Earth Motion in the first Point of *Libra*; the Sun will then appear

a b c The North Polar or *Arctic* Circle.
d e f The South Polar or *Antarctic* Circle.
E G D The Parallel of *London*.
N C S The Earth's Axis.
a C f The Axis of the Ecliptic Plane.

3. As the Sun is supposed to be at so great a Distance, that the Rays coming from it do arrive at the Earth nearly *parallel*, they will therefore illuminate very nearly one Half of the Globe of the Earth, abstracting from the Refraction of the Air. And if we are supposed to view the Earth circulating about the Sun at a very great Distance in the Positions represented in the Scheme, we shall have all the enlightened Part turn'd to the Eye on the Equinoctial Day in the Spring, but on that in the Autumn we see only the dark Part; as on the Summer and Winter Solstices we see only half the light and dark Hemispheres respectively: And accordingly the Earth is thus represented in the Figure.

4. But (as I find by Experience) the best Way to convey an Idea of the Seasons, and Day and Night, is to represent the Earth also in Positions exhibiting the visible Hemisphere equally divided into the light and dark Parts, or semicircular Areas, as in the next Plate; and to compare these both together in the Description. To begin therefore with the Situation of the Earth in the Spring and Autumn. Plate LIX.

5. In either of these Cases, 'tis evident the Sun is in the Plane of the Equator Æ Q, and therefore equally distant from each Pole of the World; consequently the *Circle of Illumination* will pass through both the Poles, N, S; and therefore every Place at an equal Distance on either Side will have an equal Degree of the Sun's Light and Heat. And as the Earth revolves upon its Axis, every Place must describe a Circle parallel to the Equator, one Half of which will be in the *light*, the other Half in the *dark* Hemisphere; and as Parts of the Circle measure the Day and Night, it is plain they must Fig. 2.

appear to enter *Aries*, and this will be the *Vernal Equinox*; for now, *the Sun being in*

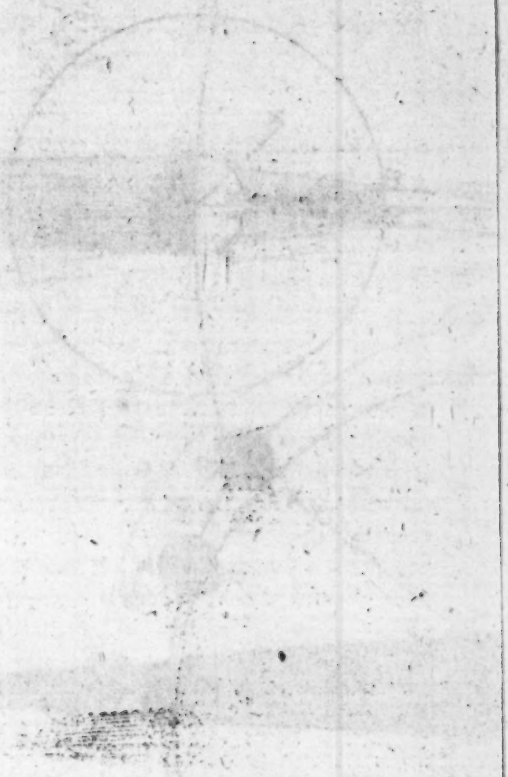
then be equal. Thus in the Equator, the Diurnal Arch Q C is equal to the Nocturnal Arch C Æ; in the Tropics R O and L M are equal to O T and M P; in the Latitude of *England* the Day E G is equal to the Night G D; and ſo in all other Parts.

6. Hence, by the way, we may obſerve, that had the Sun always moved in the Equator, there could have been no Diverſity of Day and Night, and but *one Seaſon* of the Year for ever to all the Inhabitants of the Earth. No Alteration of Heat or Cold, ſo agreeable now both to the Torrid and the Frozen Zones; but the ſame uniform eternal Round of unvariable Suns had been our uncomfortable Lot, every way contrary to that Diſpoſition we find all Mankind formed with, of being delighted and charmed with Variety to an extreme Degree. The Obliquity of the Ecliptic is therefore not to be looked upon as a Matter of Chance or Indifferency, but an Inſtance of Wiſdom and Deſign in the adorable Author of Nature, who does nothing in vain.

7. If we conſider the Earth moving on its Orbit, with its Axis N S always parallel to itſelf, till it comes into the Summer Situation, we ſhall there ſee, that by this Paralleliſm of the Axis all the Northern Parts of the Earth will be brought towards the Sun, which will in this Caſe be in the Plane of the Northern Tropic, and his Rays perpendicular upon it, as at R. The Circle of Illumination a C f will now be in ſuch a Site, as to include the North Pole and all about it to the Diſtance N A = 23° 30′; and on the contrary to exclude the South Pole S, and Southern Regions to the ſame Diſtance S f. The Northern Climates muſt therefore now have their *Summer*, and the Southern Climates their *Winter*; as will appear more particularly if we conſider,

Plate LVIII. Pl. LIX. Fig. 1.

8. *Firſt*, The Sun-Beams fall more perpendicularly upon any Northern Parallel than upon the ſame Southern Parallel,



Vol. III. *Plate* LX. *P.* 181.

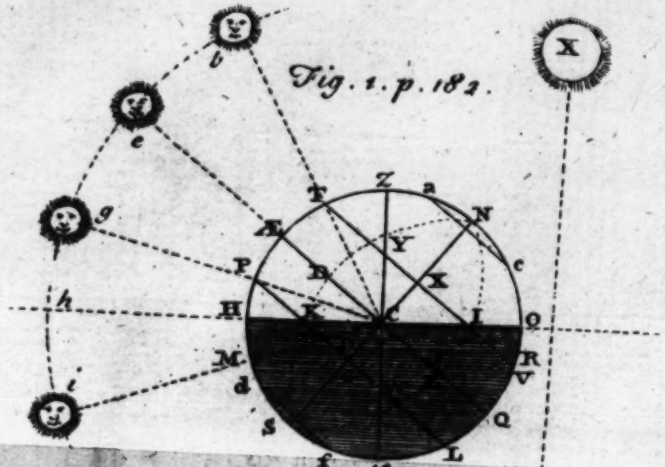


Fig. 1. p. 182.

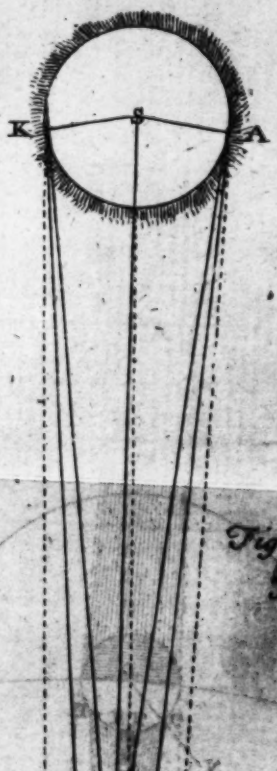
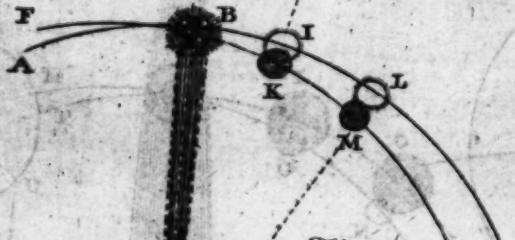


Fig. 3. p. 182.
5 194.



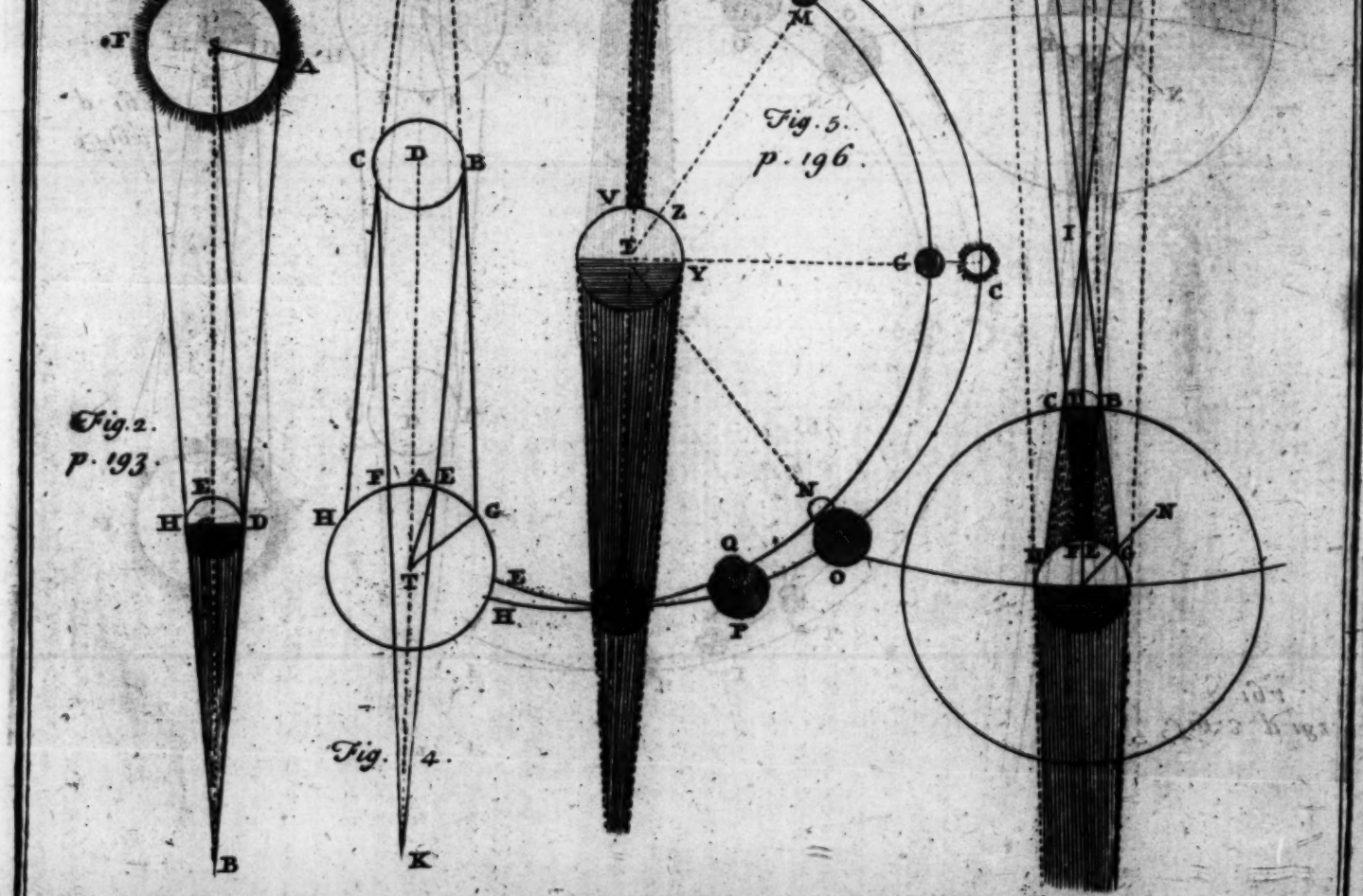


Fig. 2.
p. 193.

Fig. 3.
p. 196.

Fig. 4.

in the Equinoctial, all Parts of the Earth will be equally enlightened from Pole to Pole,

Parallel, and have therefore a ſhorter Paſſage through the Atmoſphere. Thus, for Inſtance, in the Parallel of *England* E, let the Rays *i* E, *k g*, be incident on the Atmoſphere *m n* in *h* and *l*; then will their Paſſage *h* E, *l g*, be ſhorter than it would be in the ſame Latitude Southwards, and therefore will not be ſo much refracted, blended, and abſorb'd; and conſequently their Effect will be more conſiderable and ſenſible. Again, as Rays are more perpendicular, they will ſtrike with a greater Force; alſo the more will fall on a given Space; on both which Accounts their Effect, in reſpect of Light and Heat, will be greater.

9. *Secondly*, As the Earth revolves about its Axis, every Place in North Latitude will deſcribe a greater Part of its Parallel in the enlighten'd than in the dark Hemiſphere; or, in other Words, the Day will be longer than the Night. Thus in the Northern Tropic the Diurnal Arch is R Y, the Nocturnal Y T, which is leſs than the other by the Difference Y O. Again, in the Parallel of *London* the Length of Day is ſhewn by the Arch E Z, of the Night by Z D, which is ſhorter than the Day by the Difference G Z. And laſtly, at the Polar Circle c b a it is all Day, no Part of that Parallel lying within the dark Hemiſphere a Æ f. On which Account it is evident the Light and Heat of the Sun is greater in any Place of North Latitude now than at any other Time of the Year. It is therefore now the Midſt of the Summer Seaſon in all the Northern Climates.

10. In the Southern Part of the World it is *Winter*, for the ſame Reaſons reverſed, *viz.* becauſe the Sun's Rays fall more obliquely there; they therefore paſs through a greater Quantity of the Atmoſphere, on which Account they are more refracted, blunted, and ſtifled, and their Effect weaken'd. Alſo a leſs Quantity of the Solar Rays will fall on a given Space, and each Ray ſtrike with a leſs Force, and laſtly, the Duration of

Pole, and all the Parallels of Latitude divided into two equal Parts by the *Circle of Illumination*.

their Preſence will be ſhorter than that of their Abſence, or the Day will be ſhorter than the Night; as in the Southern Tropic the Day is L X, but the Night X P, longer by the Difference M X; which Difference is ſtill greater the farther you go, till you come to the *Antarctic* Circle d e f where there is no Day at all, and all within to the South Pole S is involved in Night, of greater or leſs Duration.

11. For the ſame Reaſons, when the Earth arrives to the oppoſite Part of its Orbit, it will be SUMMER to all the Southern Climates, and WINTER in the Northern. It is evident this muſt neceſſarily happen by the Paralleliſm of the Earth's Axis, and the Change of her Place in the Orbit: By which Means the Sun now illumines that very Half of the Globe which in the other Poſition was dark; and whence it follows, that in all North Latitudes the Length of the Days *now* are equal to the Length of the Nights *then*, and *vice verſa* in South Latitudes. Thus the Day (in the Parallel of *England*) E Z = D Z, the Night in the Summer Seaſon; and the Night now, *viz.* Z D = Z E, the Day at that Time. All which Things are too plain from the Schemes to want farther Explication.

Plate LVIII. Pl. LX. Fig. 3.

12. Thus the Viciſſitudes and Variety of the Seaſons, and of the Day and Night, appear in general; but to exhibit the ſame in an eſpecial Manner for any particular Place, as *London*, another Scheme is neceſſary, wherein the Sphere ſhall have the ſame Poſition with reſpect to that Place, as the Earth itſelf has. Thus let Æ N Q S be the Earth; Z will be the higheſt Point, or Place of *London*; H O the Horizon, and N the loweſt Point or *Antipodes*; and Æ Q the Equator, T R and P L the two Tropics, a c and d f the two Polar Circles, as before.

Pl. LX. Fig. 1.

13. Then when the Sun is in the Plane of the Equator at *e*, the *Semi-diurnal Arch*, or half the Length of the Day, will be repreſented by Æ C; and that of the Night by C Q, which is equal to the former. In this

Caſe

Illumination. Hence the Days and Nights will be equal, and the Sun's Heat is now at

Caſe the Angle *e* C *h*, which meaſures the Altitude of the Sun above the Horizon *h* O, is 38° 30′ = *h e*.

14. Again: When the Sun is in the Tropic T R, and conſequently neareſt to the Zenith of *London*, the ſemi-diurnal Arch is then T I, which is longer than the former in the Proportion of the Right Angle Æ N C = 6 Hours to the obtuſe Angle Æ N F = 8 Hours 16 Minutes; N E S being an Hour-Circle drawn through the Point I, and interſecting the Equator in E. The Semi-nocturnal Arch is I R, and equal in Time to the Angle E N Q = 3 Hours 44 Minutes, the Complement of the other to 12 Hours.

15. Laſtly: When the Sun appears in the Southern Tropic at P, and moſt remote from the Zenith of *London*, the Semi-diurnal Arch is then P K, equal to the Angle Æ N D = 3 Hours 44 Minutes nearly, equal to the Night when the Sun was in the other Tropic; and the Semi-nocturnal Arch K L at this Time is evidently equal to the Semi-diurnal Arch T I at the oppoſite Time of the Year.

16. Whenever the Sun comes upon the Line N S, repreſenting the Hour-Circle of Six, it is then *Six o'Clock*, as at X in the Summer Tropic, before Sun-ſet at I; and at B in the Winter Tropic, after Sun-ſet at K. Alſo when the Sun comes upon the Line Z C N (which repreſents the *Prime Vertical*, or *Azimuth* of *Eaſt and Weſt*) it is then due *Eaſt* and *Weſt*, which happens at Y in the Northern Tropic, after Six in the Morning, and before Six in the Afternoon, and *vice verſa* at W in the Southern Tropic.

17. It is found by Obſervation, that the Air is not abſolutely dark, till the Sun is depreſs'd about 18 Degrees below the Horizon, *viz.* at *i*, that is, till the Angle *h* C *i* = 18° = H M; and drawing M V parallel to the Horizon H O, it will repreſent the Circle at which the *Crepuſculum*, or Twilight, begins and ends, in the ſeveral Points where it cuts the Parallels of the Sun's Declination, as at G in the Tropic P L, and at F in

at a Mean between the greateſt and the leaſt: All which Particulars conſtitute that agreeable

the Equator. But ſince R O = P H = 15 Degrees, the Arch O R is leſs than O V, and ſo the Tropic T R will not touch the Circle M V at all; which ſhews that for ſome Time in the Middle of Summer there is *no dark Night*: And this happens between *May* 23 and *July* 22. See my SYNOPSIS SCIENTIÆ COELESTIS, on a large Imperial Sheet, New-Stile.

18. Moreover it is evident that C F = K G, becauſe P L is parallel to Æ Q; the Time, however, of deſcribing C F and K G will not be the ſame; from whence it appears there is a certain Parallel in which the Twilight will be the *leaſt of all*, and another in which it will be a *Maximum* or *greateſt*. The former is when the Sun has 6° 7′ South Declination, *viz.* in *Libra* ♎, or *Piſces* ♓ 17° 30′, which happens *March* 7, and *October* 9, in the preſent Age: And 'tis plain the Twilight is greateſt of all in the Parallel which touches the Point V, on *May* 23 and *July* 22, as aforeſaid. *Note*, How the Time of the leaſt Duration of Twilight is inveſtigated may be ſeen in the beſt manner in Dr. *Gregory*'s *Elements of Aſtronomy*; and I would have given it here, but that it is very tedious, and in itſelf a Matter of little Importance.

19. It is a Problem of much greater Conſequence and Curioſity, to determine the Ratio or Proportion of Heat which any Place receives from the Sun in any Day of the Year. In Order to this it muſt be conſidered, that *the Quantity of Heat will be as the Time*, if we ſuppoſe the Sun to have the ſame Altitude; and as the *Sine of the Altitude*, if the Time be the ſame. Therefore if neither the Time nor Sine of the Altitude be given, the Quantity of Heat will be as the Rectangle or Product of both.

20. Therefore let a = Sine of the Latitude Æ Z; its Co-ſine (or Sine of Z N) = b; the Sine of N S = c, and of its Complement (or Declination) S D = d; the Sine of the Hour from Noon (or Angle Æ N D) = x,

its

agreeable Seaſon we call the SPRING; the Middle of which is ſhewn by the Index to be the 11th of *March*, as this Machine was made for the Old-Stile.

As its Arch Æ D = z, and Radius = 1; then is $\sqrt{1-xx}$ = Co-ſine of the Angle Z N S (*viz.* Sine of the Angle D N C) and (*per Spherics*) we have $bc\sqrt{1-xx} \pm ad$ = Sine of the Sun's Altitude S B; which multiplied by the Fluxion of the Arch of Time = $\dot{z}$ will produce the Fluxion of the Sun's Heat, *viz.* $\dot{z} \times bc\sqrt{1-x^2} \pm ad$. Or, putting $bc = g$, $\sqrt{1-x^2} = h$, $ad = f$, we have the Fluxion of the Heat = $\dot{z} \times gh \pm f$. Plate LXIV. Fig. 6.

21. Now to find the Value of $\dot{z}$, let A B = z, B E its Sine, E C the Co-ſine, and Radius C B; and ſuppoſe F G drawn infinitely near to E B, and B D parallel to A C; then 'tis evident from the ſimilar Triangles E B C and B D G, That E C : B C :: D G : G B, or $h : 1 :: \dot{x} : \dot{z}$, whence $\dot{z} = \frac{\dot{x}}{h}$; wherefore $\frac{\dot{x}}{h} \times gh \pm f = \dot{x}g \pm \frac{\dot{z}f}{h}$ = Fluxion of the Heat, whoſe Fluent is $xg \pm fz$, which therefore is as the Quantity of Heat from Noon to the given Time, as required. Plate LXIV. Fig. 7.

22. From this Theorem we may calculate the Heat of any Day in the Year in any given Latitude required; of which I ſhall give the ſeveral following uſeful Examples. Let it be required *to expreſs the Heat of an Equinoctial Day under the Equator*. In this Caſe the Latitude of the Place is Nothing, therefore $a = 0$; conſequently $fz = a\,dz = 0$. In the other remaining Part $xg = x\,bc$, $b = 1$, $c = 1$; therefore the Heat will be as x; and ſince the Semi-diurnal Arch is 90 Degrees, the Heat of the half Day will be as $x = 1$, and of the whole Day the Heat is as 2.

23. *Let the Heat of an Equinoctial Day be required for the Latitude of* 51° 30′; then becauſe in this Caſe there is no Declination of the Sun, $d = 0$, and ſo $a\,dz = 0$.

And

As the Earth paſſes on from Weſt to Eaſt, through *Libra*, *Scorpio*, and *Sagittarius*,

And ſince N S = 90°, we have $c = 1$; and for the Semi-diurnal Arch = 90°, $x = 1$ alſo; therefore the Heat is as $b = 0{,}6225$ = Co-ſine of the Latitude, which for the whole Day is 1,245, and which is to that under the Equinoctial as $1\frac{1}{4}$ to 2 nearly. At the Pole $b = 0$, therefore the Heat of an Equinoctial Day at the Poles is nothing. Laſtly, in the Latitude of 60° the Heat of ſuch a Day is half that under the Equator, or 1; becauſe then $b = \frac{1}{2}$ Radius, or 0,5.

24. In the next Place, let us *calculate the Heat of the Summer Tropical Day*. Here we have the Time of $\frac{1}{2}$ the Day 8 Hours 12 Minutes nearly; therefore the Arch of the Equator which paſſes the Meridian in that Time is 123° = z. And becauſe when Radius is 1 the Circumference is 6,28318, therefore ſay, As 360 : 6,28318 :: $z : \frac{6{,}28318\, z}{360} = 0{,}01745329\, z$, the Length of the Arch z in the Meaſure of the Radius. Therefore we have

The Logarithm of the Sine z =	123°	= 2.089905
The Logarithm ———	0,01745	= 8.241795
The Logarithm ——— a =	51° 30′	= 9.893544
The Logarithm ——— d =	23° 30′	= 9.600700

Total, the Logarithm of $a\,d\,z = 0{,}6698 = 9.824944$

25. Then for the other Part of the Theorem, *viz.* $x\,b\,c$, we have

The Logarithm of the Sine x =	57° 00′	= 9.923591
The Logarithm ——— b =	38° 30′	= 9.794149
The Logarithm ——— c =	66° 30′	= 9.962398

Total, the Logarithm of $x\,b\,c = 0{,}4788 = 9.680138$

Therefore the Heat of half the Day is 0,6698 + 0.4788 = 1,1486; and of the whole Day it is 2,2972, almoſt twice as great as that of the Equinoctial Day with us, and greater than the Heat of ſuch a Day to thoſe who live under the Equator.

26. To

rius, to the Beginning of *Capricorn*, the Sun will appear from the Earth to move through the oppoſite Signs of the Ecliptic, viz. *Aries*, *Taurus*, *Gemini*, to the Beginning

26. To find the Expreſſion of the Winter Tropical Day, we have the Semi-diurnal Arch $z = 57°$, and the reſt the ſame as before. Therefore

The Logarithm of Sine	$z = 57°$	= 1.755875
The Logarithm of ——	0,01745	= 8.241795
The Logarithm of ——	$a\,d$	= 9.494244

Total, the Logarithm of $a\,d\,z = 0{,}3104$ = 9.491914
Then $x\,b\,c - a\,d\,z = 0{,}4788 - 0{,}3104 = 0{,}1684$, and ſo $2 \times 0{,}1684 = 0{,}3368$ = Heat of the whole Day which is almoſt 7 times leſs than that of the Summer Tropic.

27. The Sum of the Heat of the two Tropical Days is $2{,}2972 + 0{,}3368 = 2{,}634$; which is greater than the Heat of two Equinoctial Days with us, which is but 2,49. Hence by means of the Obliquity of the Ecliptic, we who live beyond the Tropic have much more of the Sun's Heat than we could have enjoy'd had the Sun moved always in the Equinoctial. And on the other hand, it will be found by Calculation, that for thoſe who live between the Tropics and the Equator, the Sum of the Heat of any two oppoſite Days of the Year is leſs than the Heat of two Equinoctial Days; and therefore the Heat of the whole Year is leſs in the preſent Caſe, than it would be from a conſtant Equinoctial Sun.

28. Laſtly, let it be required to calculate the Heat of a *Polar* Day, or that under the Pole, for the Tropical Sun. In this Caſe $b = 0$, and $x\,g = x\,b\,c = 0$; alſo $a = 1$. Whence the Heat of any Day under the Pole will be as d, or *Sine of the Declination*, becauſe z is here always the ſame, *viz.* a *Semicircle*, or 180 Degrees. And under the Pole the Value of $d\,z$ is thus expreſſed for the Tropical Sun.

The

ning of *Cancer*; during which Time, by the inclined Position of the Earth's Axis, the

The Logarithm of Sine $d = 23^{\circ}\ 30' = .9.600700$
The Logarithm of —— $z = 180 = 2.255273$
The Logarithm of —— $0{,}01745 = 8.241795$

Total, the Logarithm of $dz = 1{,}252 = 0.097767$
The Double of which is 2,504; which therefore expresses the Heat of a Tropical Day under the Pole, which is greater than the Heat of any Day in any other Latitude. Hence we see the extreme of Heat, as well as of Cold, is found in the same Place, *viz.* under the Pole.

29. It is a Problem of another Sort, *To find when the Heat is a* Maximum, *or greatest of all, in any given Day.* In order to solve this, let the Semi-diurnal Arch $= a$, $z =$ Arch of the Hour from Noon, $b =$ Rectangle of the Sines of Latitude and Declination, and $c =$ Rectangle of their Co-sines. Then (*per Spherics, and Infinite Series*) we have the Co-sine of the Hour from Noon $= 1 - \frac{1}{2}z^2 + \frac{1}{24}z^4 - \frac{1}{720}z^6$, &c. and the Sine of the Sun's Altitude $= c - \frac{1}{2}cz^2 + \frac{1}{24}cz^4 - \frac{1}{720}cz^6$, &c. $+ b$. This multiply by $a + z$ is $ac + cz - \frac{1}{2}acz^2 - \frac{1}{2}cz^3 + \frac{1}{24}acz^4 + \frac{1}{24}cz^5 - \frac{1}{720}acz^6 - \frac{1}{720}cz^7$, &c. $+ ab + zb$; which therefore is proportional to the Sun's Heat. And this is greatest when its Fluxion is equal to Nothing, viz. $c\dot{z} + b\dot{z} - acz\dot{z} - \frac{3}{2}cz^2\dot{z} + \frac{1}{6}acz^3\dot{z} + \frac{5}{24}cz^4\dot{z} - \frac{1}{120}acz^5\dot{z}$, &c. $= 0$. Then dividing by $\dot{z}$, $c + b - acz - \frac{3}{2}cz^2 + \frac{1}{6}acz^3 + \frac{5}{24}cz^4 - \frac{1}{120}acz^5$, &c. $= 0$; whence $\frac{c+b}{ac} = z + \frac{3}{2a}z^2 - \frac{1}{6}z^3 - \frac{5}{24a}z^4 + \frac{1}{120}z^5 = A$. Now putting $r = \frac{3}{2a}$, $s = \frac{-1}{6}$, $t = \frac{-5}{24a}$, $v = \frac{1}{120}$; by reverting the Series we have $\dot{z} = A - rA^3 + \overline{2rr - s} \times A^5 + \overline{5rs - 5r^3 - t} \times A^7$, &c.

30. From

the *Northern* Parts will be gradually turn'd towards the Sun, and the *Southern* Parts from it; whence the Sun's Rays will fall more and more directly on the former, and paſs through a ſtill leſs Quantity of the *Atmoſphere*; but in the *Southern* Parts, the reverſe. Alſo in the *Northern* Parts, the Arches of the Parallels in the *enlighten'd Hemiſphere* will continually increaſe, and thoſe in the *dark* one decreaſe, ſhewing the conſtant Increaſe of the Days, and Decreaſe of the Nights: all which will be in their greateſt Degree when the Sun is arrived to *Cancer*; and therefore that will be the Middle of that Seaſon we call SUMMER, in *Northern Latitude*; but in *Southern Lati-*

30. From this Theorem it will be eaſy to compute the Value of z, or the Time from Noon when the Heat is greateſt on any given Day. For Example: Let it be required for the Day of the Summer Solſtice in the Latitude of 51° 30′, when the Declination is 23° 30′. Then ſince (by *Art.* 24, 25.) we have $a = 2{,}146$, $b = 0{,}3121$, $c = 0{,}5709$, $b + c = 0{,}883$, and $ac = 1{,}225$; therefore $\frac{b+c}{ac} = A = 0{,}7207$. Whence by the three firſt Terms of the Series we ſhall have $z = A - rA^2 + \overline{2rr - s} \times A^3 = 0{,}7862$. Therefore ſay, As the Circumference 6,283 : 360° :: 0,7862 : 45° nearly. Whence, by allowing 15° to an Hour, it appears that *the hotteſt Time of the Day is Three o'Clock in the Afternoon.*

tude

tude every thing will be the reverſe, and their Seaſon *Winter*.

THE *North Frigid Zone* is now wholly enlighten'd, and the Pole turned towards the Sun as far as poſſible; but now as the Earth moves on, the *North* Pole returns, the Diurnal Arches begin gradually to decreaſe, and the Nocturnal to increaſe; and of conſequence the Sun's Rays fall more and more obliquely, and his Heat proportionally diminiſhes till the Earth comes to *Aries*, when the Sun will appear in *Libra*; and thus produce an Equality of Light and Heat, of Day and Night, to all Parts of the World. This will be the Middle of the Seaſon call'd AUTUMN, and that Day the *Autumnal Equinox*.

BUT as the Earth goes on through *Aries*, *Taurus*, and *Gemini*, you will ſee the Sun paſs through the oppoſite Signs of *Libra*, *Scorpio*, *Sagittarius*. The *North* Pole is now in the dark Hemiſphere, and the *Frigid Zone* is now more and more obſcured therein: All *Northern Latitudes* continue gradually turning from the Sun; and his Rays fall more and more obliquely on them, and paſs through a larger Body of the Atmoſphere: The *nocturnal Arches* continue to increaſe, and the *diurnal* to decreaſe: All which contribute to make the diſmal

dreary

dreary Seaſon we call WINTER; the Midſt whereof is ſhewn by the Sun's entering the firſt Scruple of *Capricorn* on the 10th of *December* (Old-Stile) as by the Index may be ſeen.

LASTLY: As the Earth journeys on from thence through *Cancer*, *Leo*, and *Virgo*, the Sun appears to paſs through *Capricorn*, *Aquarius*, and *Piſces*; and all Things change their Face. The *Northern* Climes begin to return, and receive more directly the enlivening Beams of the Sun, whoſe Meridian Height does now each Day increaſe; the Days now lengthen, and the tedious Nights contract their reſpective Arches; and every Thing conſpires to advance the delightful Seaſon of the SPRING, the Midſt whereof is ſhewn by the Earth's returning again to that Point, where firſt we gave it Motion.

ALL theſe Appearances of the Seaſons, *&c.* are ſhewn as well for the *Southern Latitudes*, where at the ſame Time they happen in Order juſt the reverſe to what we have now obſerved for the *Northern*. Thus, when it is *Summer* with us, it is *Winter* with them, and they have their Days ſhorteſt when ours are longeſt; and *vice verſa*. All which is moſt diſtinctly ſeen in the Orrery.

AT

AT the ſame Time the Earth is going round the Sun, the Moon is ſeen conſtantly circulating round the Earth once in 29 Days and a half; which Days are numbe'r'd on a ſilver'd Circle, and ſhewn by an Index moving over them. Thus each Day of the Moon's Age, and the *Phaſis* proper thereto, are ſhewn for any required Time; and alſo why we ſee always *one and the ſame Face of the Moon*, *viz.* on Account of her *turning about her own Axis in the ſame Time ſhe takes to revolve about the Earth.*

AGAIN: By placing a Lamp in the Orrery, and making the Room dark, we ſee very naturally how the *Sun is eclipſed* by the New Moon, and the Shadow paſſing over the Diſk of the Earth; and alſo how the Moon, at Full, is eclipſed by paſſing through the Shadow of the Earth. Here alſo we ſee the Manner how *Mercury* and *Venus* tranſit the Sun's Face in Form of a *dark round Spot*; and alſo why they can never appear at a great Diſtance from the Sun; and various other *Phænomena*, of the like Nature (CXLIII).

THE

(CXLIII) 1. The *Doctrine of* ECLIPSES is next to be explained. The Sun being a luminous Body, vaſtly larger than the Earth, will enlighten ſomewhat more than

THE COMETARIUM is a very curious Machine, which exhibits an Idea of the Motion

than one Half of it, and cauſe the Earth to project a long *conical Shadow*, as is repreſented in the Figure, where S is the Sun, E the Earth, and H B D its Shadow. Pl. LX. Fig. 2.

2. In order to find the Extent or Magnitude of the Earth's Shadow, the Lines being drawn as in the Figure, in the Triangle S B M, the outward Angle S D A = D S B + D B S, the two inward and oppoſite Angles; but the firſt, *viz.* D S B, is that under which the Earth's Semidiameter C D appears at the Sun, which is not ſenſible; therefore D B S, the Semi-Angle of the Cone, is equal to A D S, which is the Angle under which the Sun's Semidiameter A S appears at the Earth, which in its mean Diſtance is 16 Minutes.

3. Hence we can find the Height of the ſhadowy Cone C B; for in the Right-angled Triangle C B D there is given the Side C D = 1, and the Angle C B D = 16 Minutes; therefore to find the Side C B, ſay,

As the Tangent of C B D	= 00°	16′	= 7.667849
Is to the Radius	90	00	= 10.000000
So is Unity		1	= 0.

To the Length of the Side C B = 214,8 = 2.332151

4. The Height of the Earth's Shadow being at the mean Diſtance of the Sun 214,8 Semidiameters, when the Sun is at its greateſt Diſtance it will make C B = 217 Semidiameters of the Earth, which is its greateſt Height. Hence we ſee the Height of the Shadow is near *three times* as great as the mean Diſtance of the Moon, or 60 Semidiameters: But the Height of the terreſtrial Shadow falls far ſhort of the Diſtance of *Mars*, and therefore can involve no one of the heavenly Bodies but the Moon.

5. After the ſame Manner it may be ſhewn that the Angle of the Moon's Shadow (and indeed of all Spheres whoſe Semidiameters bear no ſenſible Proportion to their Diſtance from the Sun) is of the ſame Dimenſions with

Motion or Revolution of a Comet about the Sun; and as this Sort of Motion is not that of the Earth; whence those Cones are similar Figures, and so have their Heights proportional to the Diameters of the Bases. Therefore say, As the Diameter of the Earth 100 is to the Diameter of the Moon 28, so is the Altitude of the Earth's Shadow 214,8 to the Altitude of the Moon's Shadow 60 $\frac{134}{1000}$ of the Earth's Semidiameters. The Shadow of the Moon therefore will just reach the Earth in her mean Distance, which it cannot do in her Apogee; but in her Perigee it will involve a small Part of the Earth's Surface.

Pl. LX. Fig. 3. 6. Besides the Dark Shadow of the Moon, there is another called the *Penumbra*, or Partial Shadow; to represent which let S be the Sun, T the Earth, D the Moon; and let K C F and A B E be two Lines touching the opposite Limbs of the Sun and Moon; then 'tis evident that C F E B will be the dark or absolute Shadow of the Moon, in which a Person on the Earth's Surface between E and F is wholly deprived of the Sun's Light. Moreover, Let K B G and A C H be two other Lines touching the Sides of the Sun and Moon alternately, and intersecting each other in the Point I above the Moon. Then will H C B G be the *Penumbra* abovementioned, and is the *Frustum* of the Cone G I H; for 'tis evident that a Part of the Sun will be seen and Part thereof hid to a Spectator on the Earth's Surface between F and H, and E and G, or in other Words, the Sun in those Parts of the Earth will appear only *partially eclipsed*.

7. To calculate the Angle of the Cone H I G, draw S B, then in the oblique Triangle B I S, the external Angle B I D is equal to both the inward and opposite Angles I B S and I S B; but I S B is that under which the Semidiameter of the Moon appears at the Sun, and is therefore insensibly small; whence the Angle B I D = I B S or K B S = the apparent Semidiameter of the Sun. Therefore the Part of the Penumbral Cone C I B

not performed in *circular*, but very *elliptic Orbits*, ſo in this Inſtrument, a peculiar Con-

CIB is equal and ſimilar to the dark Shadow of the Moon.

8. Let us now ſee how much of the Earth's Surface can be at any Time involved in the Moon's dark Shadow, or the Quantity of the Arch EF. In order to this let us ſuppoſe the Sun to be an Apogee, and the Moon in Perigee; and in that Caſe the Height of the conical Shadow will be about 61 Semidiameters, and the Diſtance of the Moon about 56; that is, (in *Fig.* 4.) Pl. LX. DK = 61, DT = 56, and TE = 1. In this Caſe alſo the Half-Angle of the Shadow TKE = 15′ 50″, as being leaſt of all. Therefore ſay,

As Unity, or the Side TE = 1 = 0.
Is to the Side TK = 5 = 0.698970
So is Sine of the Semi-angle TKE = 15′ 50′ = 7.663238

To Sine of the Angle TEK = 1° 19′ 10″ = 8.362208
Wherefore TEK + TKE = ATE = AE = 1°35′, and ſo FE = 3° 10′ = 190′ = 220 Miles Statute Meaſure; which is therefore the Diameter of the dark Shadow on the Earth's Surface when greateſt.

9. After a like Manner you find the Diameter of the Penumbral Shadow at the Earth, as GEFH, when greateſt of all, that is, when the Earth is *in Perihelio*, and the Moon in her *Apogee*; for then will the Sun's apparent Diameter be equal to 16′ 23″ = TIG, the greateſt Semi-angle of the Cone; and thence we ſhall find ID = 58½ Semidiameters of the Earth. In this Caſe alſo the Diſtance of the Moon from the Earth is DT = 64 Semidiameters. Therefore, As TG = 1 : TI = 122½ :: Sine of the Angle TIG = 16′ 23″ : Sine of the Angle IGN = 35° 42′. But IGN = TIG + ITG, and ſo ITG = IGN − TIG = 35° 25′; the double of which is 70° 50′ = GEFH = 4900 *Engliſh* Miles nearly.

10. Since an Eclipſe of the Sun proceeds from an Interpoſition of the Moon, 'tis evident, if the Sun and

Contrivance by *elliptical Wheels* is neceſſary to effect it; of which we have given a Print

Moon were always in the ſame Plane, there would neceſſarily be an Eclipſe of the Sun every time the Moon came between the Sun and Earth, that is, at every *New Moon*. For let X be the Sun, T the Earth, and FBGH the Moon's Orbit in the Plane of the Ecliptic; then when the Moon comes to be at B in the Right Line TX, which joins the Centres of the Sun and Earth, it will be exactly interpoſed between the Sun and a Spectator on the Earth at V; and ſince the apparent Magnitude or Diſk of the Sun is the ſame nearly with that of the Moon, it muſt neceſſarily be hid behind the Sun's Diſk at that Time, and ſo eclipſed from the Sight of the Spectator; and this muſt be the Caſe whenever the Moon comes into the ſaid Line or Point B, *viz.* every New Moon.

Pl. LX. Fig. 5.

11. But if (as the Caſe really is) the Orbit of the Moon be not in the Plane of the Ecliptic, but inclined thereto under a certain Angle, there may be a New Moon, and yet no Eclipſe of the Sun at the ſame Time. To illuſtrate this, let ABCDE be a Circle in the Plane of the Ecliptic, deſcribed at the Diſtance of the Moon's Orbit AGH, and interſecting the ſame in the Points B and D, making an Angle therewith as ABF, whoſe Meaſure is the Arch GC, as being 90 Degrees diſtant from the angular Points or *Nodes* B and D.

12. Now 'tis evident, if the Arch GC be ſomewhat greater than the Sum of the apparent Semidiameters of the Sun and Moon then at G, and ſome Diſtance from G towards B, there may be a New Moon, and yet no Eclipſe of the Sun, becauſe in this Caſe the Diſk of the Moon G is too much elevated or depreſſed above or below the apparent Diſk or Face of the Sun C to touch it, much leſs to hide or eclipſe any Part thereof; as is evident from the Figure.

13. At a certain Point M in the Moon's Orbit, the Moon will have a Latitude equal to the Sum of the Semidiameters

Vol. III. *Plate* LXI. *P.* 197.

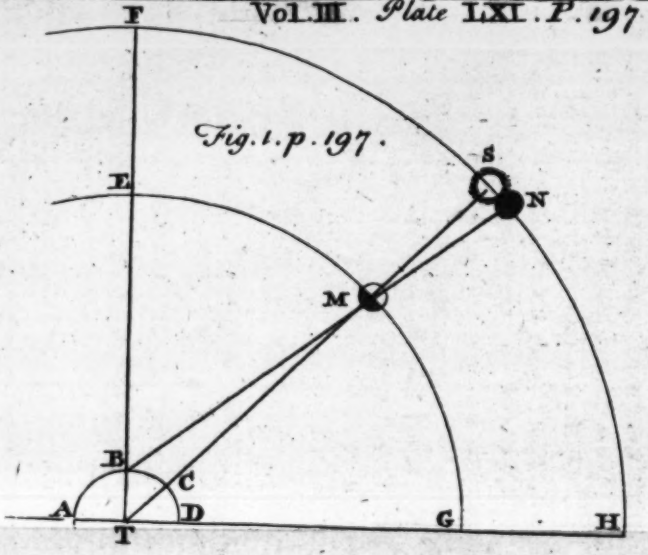


Fig. 1. p. 197.

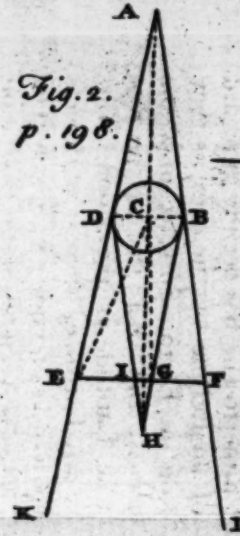


Fig. 2. p. 198.

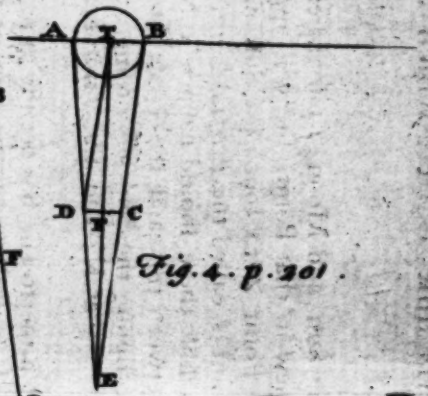


Fig. 4. p. 201.

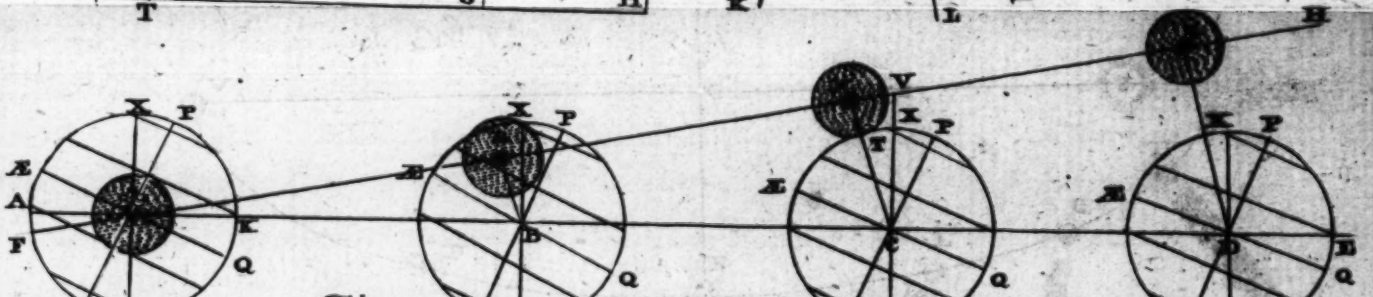


Fig. 3.
p. 199.

Fig. 5. p. 201.

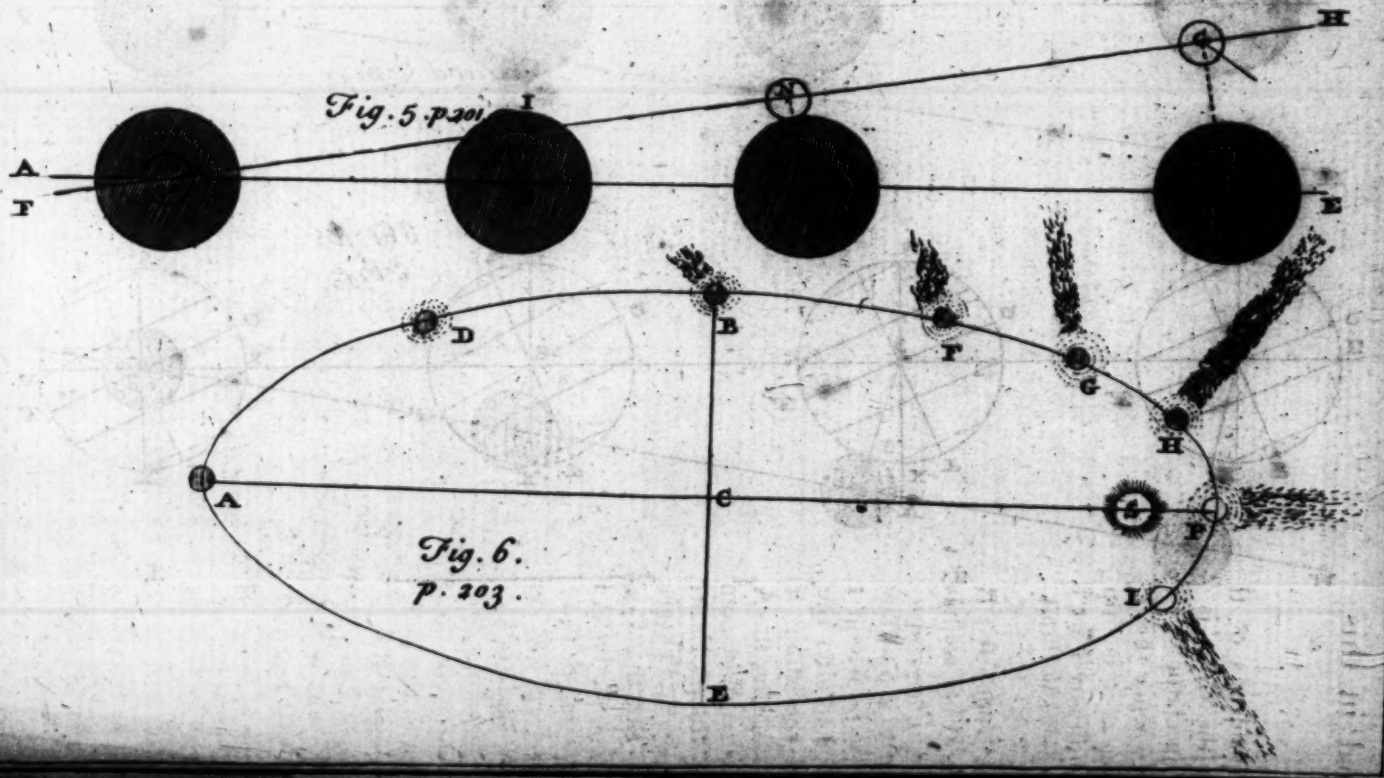


Fig. 6.
p. 203.

Print in Plate XII. The Comet repreſented in this Machine is that which appeared

Semidiameters of the Sun and Moon; and therefore when the Moon is new in that Point, ſhe will appear to a Spectator in the Point Z to touch the Sun only; from whence this Point is called the *Ecliptic Limit*, inaſmuch as it is impoſſible there ſhould happen a New Moon in any Part between this and the Node D (on each Side) without eclipſing the Sun leſs or more; as you ſee the *Partial Eclipſe* at K, and the *Total Eclipſe* in the Node itſelf B.

14. What we have hitherto ſaid has been with regard to the *Phænomena* of an Eclipſe of the Sun as they appear to a Spectator on the Earth's Surface, in whoſe Zenith the Moon then is, and where there is no Refraction to alter the true Latitude of the Moon: But where the Moon has any Latitude, there the Proceſs of calculating the Appearances of a Solar Eclipſe will be ſomewhat more complex, on Account of the Variation of the Moon's Latitude and Longitude for every different Altitude, and conſequently every Moment of the Eclipſe.

15. But that I may give a clear Idea of this Affair of Refractions, let A B D be the Surface of the Earth, M the Moon, S the Sun, ſeen from the Centre of the Earth T in the ſame Point of the Heavens with the Moon, and conſequently *centrally eclipſed* to a Spectator at C, in whoſe Zenith the Moon is: But to a Spectator any where elſe ſituated, the ſame *Phænomenon* will not happen in the ſame Circumſtances, if at all. Thus a Spectator at B will view the Moon in the Direction of the Right Line B M N, and ſo her apparent Place in the Heavens will be at N, where it is evident her upper Limb will but juſt touch the lower Limb of the Sun, and ſo will not eclipſe it at all: But to a Spectator any where between B and C the Sun will appear to be *partially eclipſed* leſs or more, as you go from B towards C. Pl. LXI. Fig. 1.

16. This Arch S N in the Heavens is called the *Parallax*, or Difference between the *true and apparent Place*

peared in the Year 1682, whoſe Period is 75 Years and a half, and therefore will again

of the Body at M, and is equal to the Angle S M N or B M T. Now this Angle or Parallax is conſtantly diminiſhing, as the *Phænomenon* at M approaches towards the Zenith at E, where it entirely vaniſhes; but increaſes as it approaches the Horizon at G, where it is greateſt of all, and is there called the *Horizontal Parallax*, which in the Moon amounts to a *whole Degree*, as was ſhewn *Annot.* CXXXV.

17. It is here obſervable, that the Parallax always depreſſes the Object, and therefore when the Moon has North Latitude it is diminiſhed, but the South Latitude is increaſed, with reſpect to us; and ſo the Ecliptic Limits are variable in every particular Latitude. But a *Solar Eclipſe* may in an abſolute Manner be beſt repreſented by a Projection of the Earth's Diſk, and of the Section of the dark and penumbral Shadow of the Moon, as they appear (or would appear) to a Spectator at the Diſtance of the Moon in a Right Line joining the Centres of the Sun and Earth.

18. In order to this, we are to find the Dimenſions of the apparent Semidiameters of the Earth, dark Shadow, and *Penumbra*, at the Diſtance of the Moon. As to the firſt, *viz.* the *Earth's Semidiameter*, it is equal to the Moon's *horizontal Parallax*, as we have ſhewn. That of the *dark Shadow* is thus eſtimated: Let C be the Centre of the Moon, D B its Diameter, D H B its dark Shadow, and K A L the Penumbral Cone. Then let E F be the Diameter of the *Penumbra* at the Earth, and I G that of the dark Shadow, and draw C G and C E; then is the Angle C G B = B H C + H C G, and ſo G C H = B G C — B H C; that is, the apparent Semidiameter of the dark Shadow is equal to the Difference between the apparent Semidiameters of the Moon and Sun. (See *Art.* 2. and 5.)

Pl. LXI. Fig. 2.

19. In like Manner the Angle E C H = D E C + D A C, that is, the apparent Semidiameter of the *Penumbra* at the Earth is equal to the Sum of the apparent

again appear in 1758. By this Piece of Machinery is ſhewn the *unequal Motion* of a Comet

rent Semidiameter of the Moon and Sun. (See *Art.* 7.) Now the Semidiameters of the Sun and Moon, and alſo the Moon's horizontal Parallax, are already calculated for the various Diſtances of the Sun and Moon from the Earth, and for leaſt, mean, and greateſt Eccentricities of the Lunar Orbit, in the *Aſtronomical Tables*.

20. Therefore let A E repreſent a ſmall Portion of the annual Orbit, and F H the viſible Path of the Centre of the Lunar Shadows, which will exactly correſpond to the Poſition of the Moon's Orbit with reſpect to the Ecliptic in the Heavens; and therefore the Point of Interſection ☊ will be the Node, and the Angle H ☊ E the Angle of Inclination of the Lunar Orbit to the Plane of the Ecliptic, which is about 5 Degrees. Pl. LXI. Fig. 3.

21. Hence if Æ P Q S repreſent the Diſk of the Earth (according to the *Orthographic Projection*) in the ſeveral Places ☉, B, C, D, whoſe Semidiameter is made equal to the Number of Minutes in the Moon's Horizontal Parallax at the Time of the Eclipſe; and if in the Path of the Shadows in the Points ☊, R, N, G, we deſcribe a ſmall Circle whoſe Semidiameter is equal to the Difference between the Semidiameters of the Sun and Moon, that ſhall be the circular Section of the Moon's dark Shadow at the Diſtance of the Earth: (by *Article* 18.) Laſtly, if on the ſame Centre we deſcribe a larger Circle, whoſe Semidiameter is equal to the Sum of the Semidiameters of the Sun and Moon, that ſhall repreſent the Section of the Penumbral Shadow, (by *Art.* 19.) and is here ſhewn by the dotted Area.

22. Here then it is evident, if the Moon, when New, be at the Diſtance ☊ G from the Node, the Penumbral Shadow will not fall near the Earth's Diſk, and ſo there cannot poſſibly happen any Eclipſe. If the Moon's Diſtance from the Node be equal to ☊ N, then the Penumbral Shadow will juſt touch the Diſk, and conſequently ☊ C the *Ecliptic Limit*; which may be found

a Comet in every Part of its Orbit, and how from thence it moves with a retarded Velocity

as follows. The Line NC, as being the neareſt Diſtance of the Centres of the Shadows and Diſk, is perpendicular to the Path F H, and is equal to T C + N T = 62′ 10″ + 16′ 52″ + 16′ 23″, *viz.* the Sum of the Moon's Horizontal Parallax, and of the Semidiameters of the Sun and Moon, all of them when greateſt: Alſo the Angle N ☊ C, when leaſt, is 5° 30′. Therefore in the Right-angled Triangle N ☊ C, to find the Side ☊ C, we have the following Analogy.

As the Sine of the Angle N ☊ C = 5° 30′ = 8.981573

Is to Radius 90° 00′ = 10,000000

So is the Logarithm of the Side NC = 95′,5 = 1,980003

To the Logarithm of the Side ☊ C = 996′,4 = 2.998430

23. The Ecliptic Limit, therefore, is 996′,4 = 16° 36′, beyond which Diſtance from the Node ☊ there can be no Eclipſe; and within that Diſtance if the Moon be New, the Shadow will fall on ſome Part of the Diſk, as at B; where all thoſe Places over which the Shadows paſs will ſee the Sun eclipſed, *in part only* by the dotted Penumbral Shadow, but *totally* by the dark Shadow; and the Sun will be *centrally* eclipſed to all thoſe Places over which the Centre of the Shadows paſſeth.

24. If the Moon be new in the Node itſelf, then will the Centre of the Shadows paſs over the Centre of the Diſk, as repreſented at ☊. In this Caſe if the apparent Diameter of the Moon be greater than that of the Sun, the Face of the Sun will be *wholly obſcured* to all Parts over which the Centre paſſes; but if not, the Sun will only be *centrally eclipſed*, but his Circumference will appear a *bright Annulus*, or luminous Ring, whoſe Width will be equal to the Difference of the Diameters of the Luminaries.

25. As the Diſk of the Earth is here projected, it repreſents the Caſe of an Eclipſe on an *Equinoctial Day*, ſo that A K is the Ecliptic, Æ Q the Equator, X Y the Axis

Velocity till it arrives at the *Aphelion* Point, where it moves ſloweſt of all; and from thence

Axis of the Ecliptic, P S the Axis of the Equator or of the Earth, P and S the North and South Poles; beſides the Tropics and Polar Circles, here repreſented by Right Lines, as in the common *Analemma*. And by thoſe who underſtand this Projection, the Diſk of the Earth and the Paſſage of the Shadows over it may be exhibited for any Place of the Sun, or Declination of the Moon; for which ſee my *Young Trigonometer's Guide*, Vol. II.

26. LUNAR ECLIPSES are not quite ſo complicated in Theory, nor near ſo tedious and difficult in Calculation, as Solar ones. The latter are only *apparent*, the former *really ſuch*; that is, the Moon is really deprived of its Light, and therefore muſt appear obſcured to all the Inhabitants of the Earth equally, by whom ſhe can be ſeen; whereas the Sun, not being deficient in Light, will ever appear reſplendent to thoſe who do not happen to live on that Part of the Earth where the Lunar Shadows paſs.

27. As a *Lunar Eclipſe* is occaſioned by the Immerſion of the Moon into the Earth's Shadow, we have only to calculate the apparent Semidiameter of the Earth's Shadow at the Moon, in order to delineate an Eclipſe of this Sort. Thus let A B be the Earth, T its Centre, A E B its Conical Shadow, D C the Diameter of a Section thereof at the Moon; and drawing T D, we have the outward Angle A D T = D T E + D E T; therefore D T E = A D T − D E T; that is, the Angle D T E, under which the Semidiameter of the Earth's Shadow at the Diſtance of the Moon appears, is equal to the Difference between the Moon's Horizontal Parallax A D T, and the Semidiameter of the Sun D E F. Pl. LXI, Fig. 4.

28. If therefore A E repreſent the Path of the Earth's Shadow at the Diſtance of the Moon near the Node ☊, and F H a Part of the Lunar Orbit, and the Section of the Earth's Shadow be delineated at ☊, B, C, D, and the Full Moon at ☊, I, N, G; then 'tis evident, where the Fig. 5.

thence it is ſeen continually accelerating its Motion towards the *Perihelium*, in ſuch manner as the Laws of Attraction require. The Comet is repreſented by a ſmall Braſs Ball, carried by a *Radius Vector*, or Wire, in an *elliptic Groove*, about the Sun in one of its *Foci*; and the Years of its Period are ſhewn by an Index moving with an equable

the leaſt Diſtance of the Centres of the Moon and Shadow exceeds the Sum of their Semidiameters, there can be no Eclipſe of the Moon, as at D. But where that Diſtance is leſs, the Moon muſt be partly or wholly involved in the Shadow, and ſo ſuffer an Eclipſe, as at B and ☋; in which latter Caſe the Moon paſſes over the Diameter of the Shadow.

29. But in a certain Poſition of the Shadow at C, the leaſt Diſtance of the Centres N C is equal to the Sum of the Semidiameters; and therefore ☋ C is the *Ecliptic Limit* for Lunar Eclipſes: To find which, we have N C = 63′ 12″ nearly when greateſt, and the Angle N ☋ C = 5° 00′. Therefore ſay

As the Sine of the Angle N ☋ C = 5° 00′ = 8.940296

Is to Radius 90° 00′ = 10,000000

So is the Logarithm of the Side NC = 63′,2 = 1.800717

To the Logarithm of the Side ☋ C = 725′,2 = 2,860421

Hence if the Moon be at a leſs Diſtance from the Node ☋ than 725′ = 12° 5′, there will be an Eclipſe; otherwiſe none can happen.

30. If the Earth had no Atmoſphere, the Shadow would be abſolutely dark, and the Moon involved in it quite inviſible; but by means of the Atmoſphere many of the Solar Rays are refracted into and mixed with the Shadow, by which the Moon is render'd viſible in the midſt of it, and of a duſky red Colour.

equable Motion over a graduated ſilver'd Circle: The Whole being a juſt Repreſentation of the preſent Theory of thoſe prodigious and wonderful *Phænomena* of the Planetary Syſtem (CXLIV).

(CXLIV) 1. I ſhall here preſent the Reader with as large a Compendium of the NEWTONIAN COMETOGRAPHY as the Limits of this Work will permit, or, perhaps, as he may have an Inclination to read. Sir *Iſaac* has made the Doctrine or *Aſtronomy* of *Comets* the laſt Part of his immortal *Principia*, and declares it to be by far the moſt difficult and intricate Part of Philoſophy.

2. A COMET is a Sort of Planet revolving about the Sun, in a very eccentric Orbit or Ellipſis, and which conſequently approaches very near the Sun in one Part of its Orbit, and recedes to a very remote Diſtance from it in another. Hence 'tis evident, they muſt undergo extreme Degrees of Heat and Cold. Hence it appears that the Comets are ſolid, compact, fixed, and durable Bodies, and not a Vapour or Exhalation of the Earth, Sun, or Planets, as has been uſually ſuppoſed; becauſe if it were ſuch, it muſt inevitably be diſſipated and diſperſed in paſſing ſo near the Sun: For the Diſtance of the Comet of 1680 *in Perihelio* was ſo ſmall that it conceived a Degree of Heat above 200 times greater than that of red-hot Iron.

3. Yet are they not ſo fixed, but that they emit a fine, thin, lucid Vapour; which at firſt, while the Comet is yet a great way from the Sun, ſurrounds the Body in Form of an Atmoſphere, and begins to render the Comet viſible. As the Comet approaches nearer the Sun, this Vapour begins to aſcend from the Head or *Nucleus*, to Heights greater and greater, as the Comet gets nearer and nearer to the Sun, and makes thoſe amazing Streams of Light we uſually call their *Tails*. All which is eaſy to conceive from a View of the Figure.

4. Theſe

4. These Tails also are so fine and translucid, that the Stars are distinctly visible through them. As they rise from the Head and ascend, they become rarified, and grow broader towards the upper End. The Form of the Tail is well known to all now living who saw the late Comet; in which we observe the Tail had a small Flexure or Curvature, as they all have, being convex on the anterior Part, and concave behind, which arises from the twofold Motion of the Particles of the Tail, the one of the Ascent from the Head, the other being the progressive Motion in common with the *Nucleus* itself. But as the former is much the greatest, so its Direction is but little alter'd by the latter, and so the Position of the Tail but a little oblique and incurvated.

5. As to the Cause of the Ascent of the Cometary Vapour or Tail towards the Parts opposite to the Sun, there have been various Surmises and Conjectures, for so I call them, as not being attended with Certainty and Demonstration. *Kepler* ascribes it to the Action of the Sun's Rays rapidly carrying the Matter of the Tail away with them. And Sir *Isaac* does not think it dissonant to Reason, to suppose the subtil *Æther* in those free Spaces may yield to the Action and Direction of the Sun-Beams. It is certain from Experiments, that the Solar Rays collected by a Burning-Glass to a Focus, impel Light and pendulous Bodies very notably, even so as to make them vibrate backwards and forwards: And though this Impulsion of the Rays of Light with us, in our gross Mediums, and on our sluggish Matter, be inconsiderable; yet in those free Spaces, and on the subtil Effluvia or fine Particles of the Cometary Atmosphere, it may be very great. I know there are other and later Hypotheses to account for the Motion and Form of a Comet's Tail; but on Examination they appear to be insufficient, improbable, and unphilosophical, and therefore shall not trouble the Reader with them.

6. The Bodies of Comets are very small, and above the Orbit of the Moon, as is evident from hence, that they have no perceptible *horizontal* or *diurnal Parallax*, and when view'd with a Telescope at their nearest Distances appear less than to the naked Eye, by having the

Splendo

4. Thefe Tails alſo are ſo fine and tranſ
the Stars are diſtinctly viſible through them
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the Poſition of the Tail but a little.

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Vol. III.

Plate LXII. P. 205.

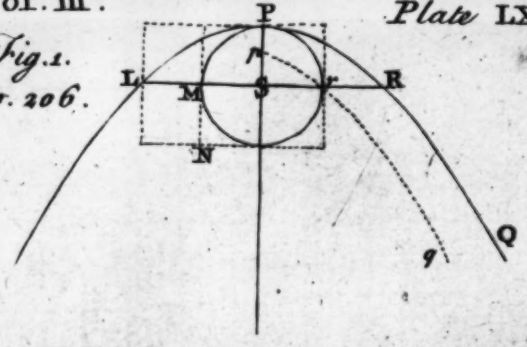


Fig. 1. p. 206.

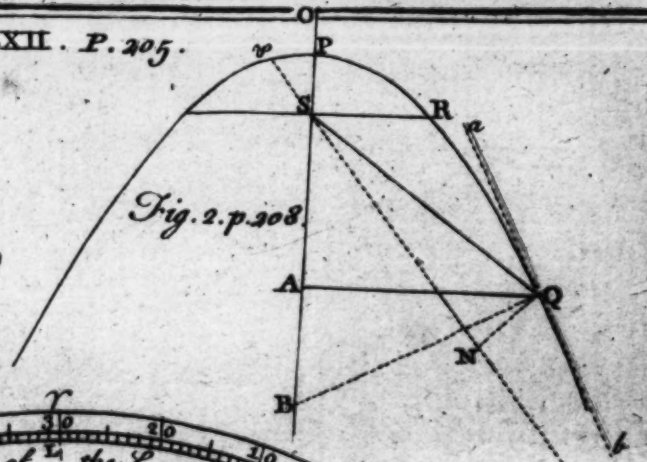
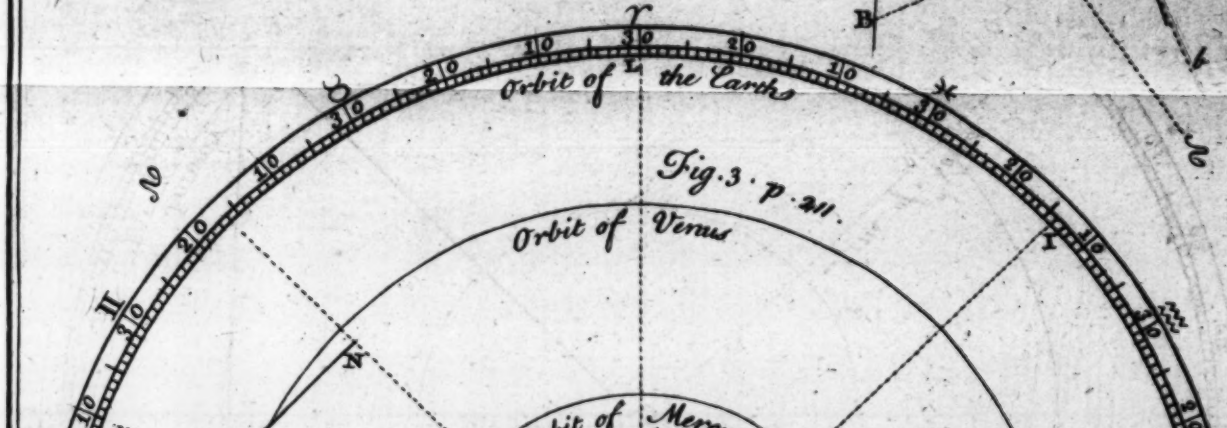
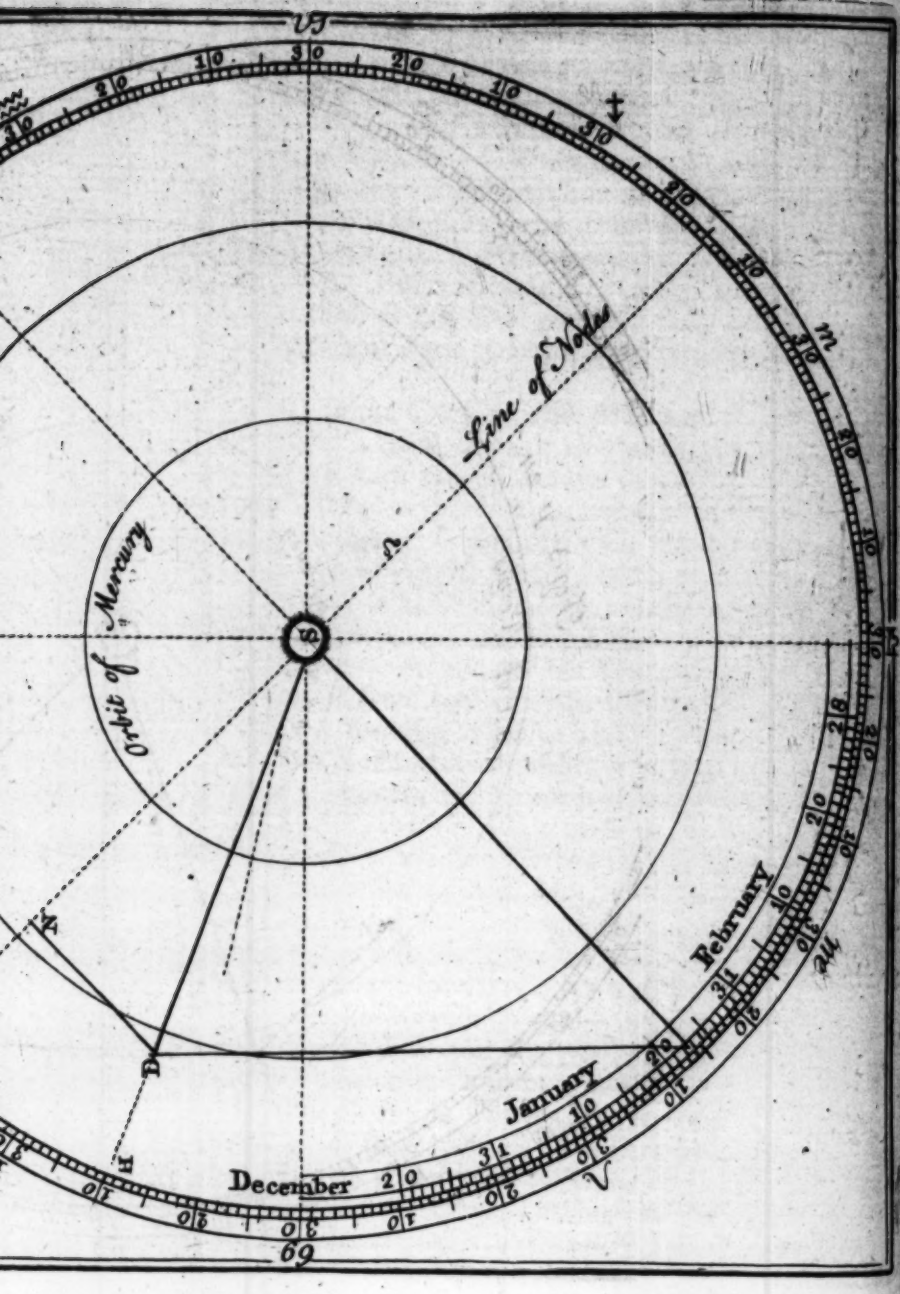


Fig. 2. p. 208.




Line of Nodes
Orbit of Mercury
December
January
February

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ng magnified. The Nucleus of
but a few Seconds, as I found
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belonging to Plate 62.

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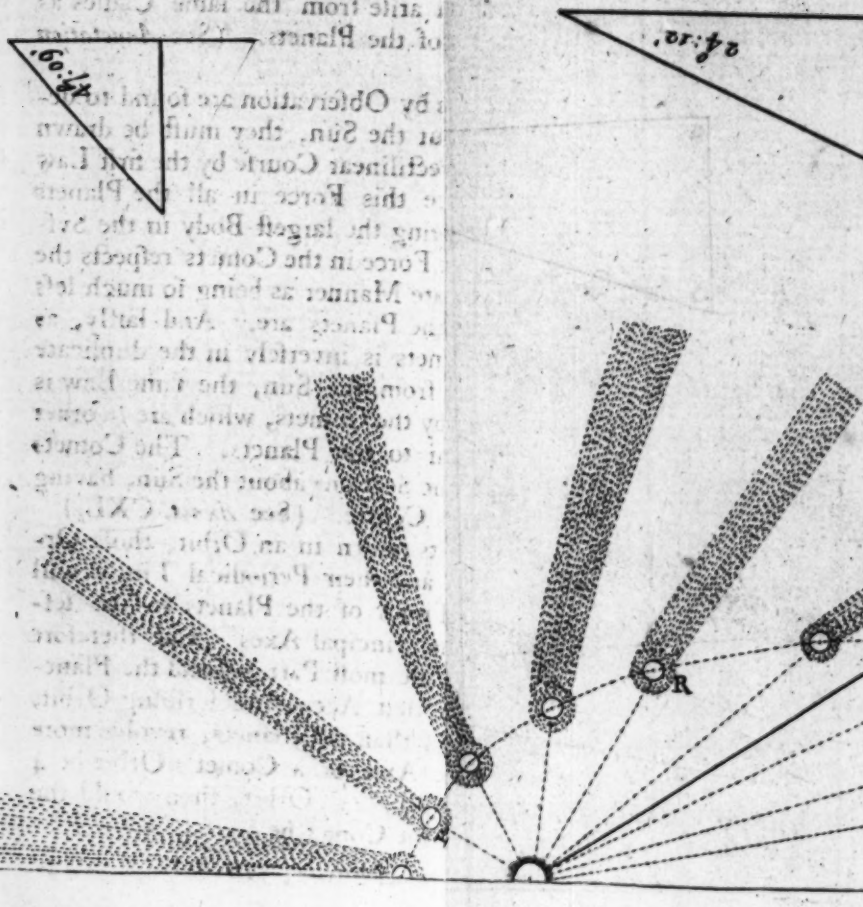

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Force in the Comets reflects the
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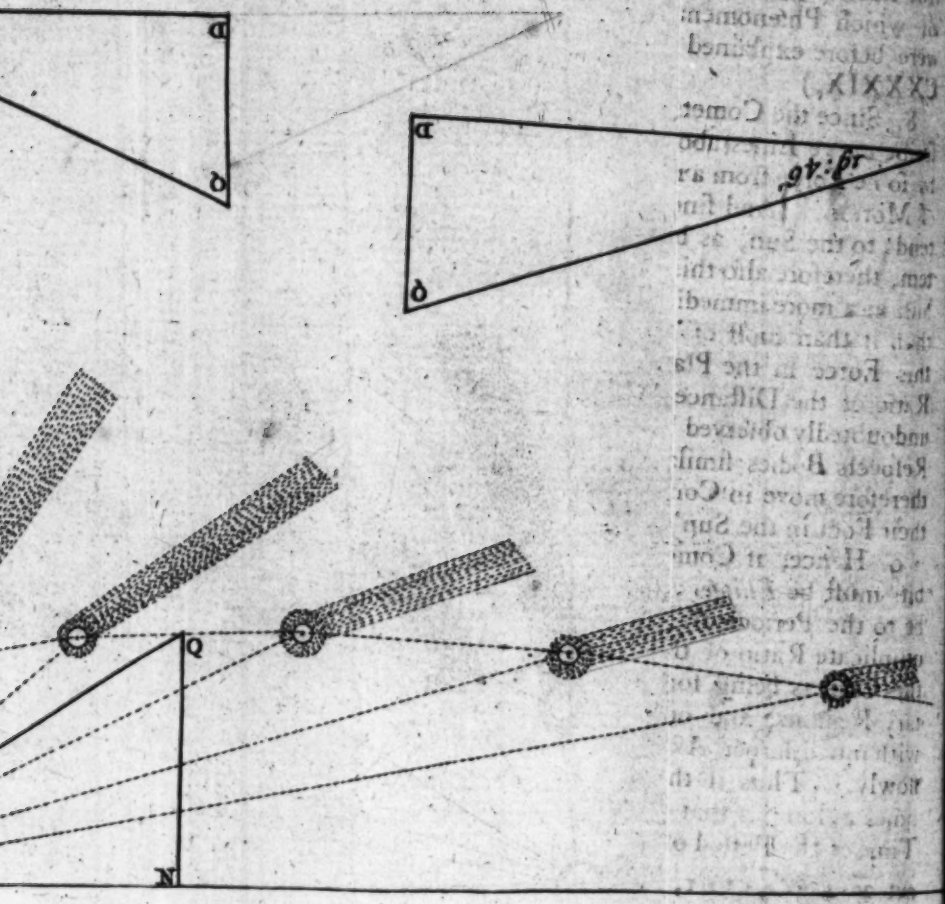

Q
N

Splendor of their Tails taken off, and that of the Atmoſphere abated by being magnified. The *Nucleus* of the laſt Comet meaſured but a few Seconds, as I found by meaſuring the Atmoſphere by a Micrometer, and taking a proportional Part.

7. On the other hand, by their *annual Parallax* they are proved to deſcend within the Regions of the Planets; they alſo appear ſometimes *direct* and ſlower than they really move, ſometimes *retrograde* and ſwifter than the true Motion, and laſtly, they are ſometimes *ſtationary*; all which Phænomena ariſe from the ſame Cauſes as were before explained of the Planets. (See *Annotation* CXXXIX.)

8. Since the Comets by Obſervation are found to deſcribe curve Lines about the Sun, they muſt be drawn by ſome Force from a rectilinear Courſe by the firſt Law of Motion. And ſince this Force in all the Planets tends to the Sun, as being the largeſt Body in the Syſtem, therefore alſo this Force in the Comets reſpects the Sun in a more immediate Manner as being ſo much leſs than it than moſt of the Planets are. And laſtly, as this Force in the Planets is inverſely in the duplicate Ratio of the Diſtance from the Sun, the ſame Law is undoubtedly obſerved by the Comets, which are in other Reſpects Bodies ſimilar to the Planets. The Comets therefore move in Conic Sections about the Sun, having their Foci in the Sun's Centre. (See *Annot.* CXL.)

9. Hence, if Comets return in an Orbit, thoſe Orbits muſt be *Ellipſes*; and their Periodical Times will be to the Periodical Times of the Planets in the ſeſquiplicate Ratio of the principal Axes: And therefore the Comets being for the moſt Part beyond the Planetary Regions, and on that Account deſcribing Orbits with much larger Axes than the Planets, revolve more ſlowly. Thus if the Axis of a Comet's Orbit be 4 times as long as that of *Saturn*'s Orbit, then would the Time of the Period of the Comet be to that of the Planet as $4\sqrt{4}$ to 1, or as 8 to 1, *viz.* $8 \times 30 = 240$ Years.

10. Since it is found by Obſervations that the Cometary Orbits are extremely eccentric, and that the Portion which a Comet deſcribes during the whole Time of its

its Appearance is but a very ſmall Part of the Whole, the Centre of ſuch an Ellipſis being removed to ſo vaſt a Diſtance muſt occaſion the Curvature at each End to be vaſtly near that of a Parabola having the ſame focal Diſtance; and conſequently the Motion of a Comet may be calculated in a Parabolic Orbit without any ſenſible Error.

Plate LXII. Fig. 1.

11. Therefore the Velocity of a Comet *in Perihelio* (*viz.* in the Vertex of the Parabola P) is to the mean Velocity of a Planet deſcribing a Circle about the Sun, at the ſame focal Diſtance S P, as $\sqrt{2}$ to 1. And ſuppoſing the Earth to be that Planet, let us put the Radius of its Orbit S P = 100000, and then ſay, As the whole Periodical Time of the Earth 365' is to the whole Periphery 628318, ſo is 1 Day to 1720,2 Parts deſcribed in one Day; and in one Hour it will deſcribe 71,67 Parts. But as $1 : \sqrt{2} :: 1720{,}2 : 2432{,}747$, the Parts deſcribed by the Comet in one Day; and ſo the Parts deſcribed by the Comet in one Hour will be 101,364.

12. Whence if the *Latus Rectum* L R of the Parabola be equal to 4 times the Radius S P of the Earth's Orbit, and we put $\overline{SP}^2 = 100000000$, the Area which the Comet will deſcribe each Day, by a Ray drawn to the Sun, will be $1216373\frac{1}{2}$ of thoſe Parts, and each Hour an Area of $50682\frac{1}{4}$ of thoſe Parts. To demonſtrate this we muſt conſider, that the Square of the Diameter of any Circle is to its Area as $1 : 0{,}7854 :: 4 : 3{,}14159$; therefore the Square of Radius or P M = 1. Whence the Area of the Circle is to the ſaid Square P M as 3,14159 to 1. And the Rectangle P L = 2. But the Parabolic Area $PLS = \frac{2}{3} PL = \frac{2}{3} \times 2 = \frac{4}{3}$. Hence this Area P L S is to the Area of the Circle as $\frac{4}{3}$ to 3,14159. And if the Velocity of the Comet and Planet at P were the ſame, the Time in which the Comet would deſcribe the Arch of the Parabola P L would be to the Time in which the Planet deſcribes its Orbit in the ſame Ratio of $\frac{4}{3}$ to 3,14159. But theſe

Velocities

Velocities are as $\sqrt{2}$ to 1, therefore the said Times will be $\frac{4}{3} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ to $\frac{3,14159}{1}$ that is, as $\sqrt{\frac{16}{18}} = \sqrt{\frac{8}{9}}$ to 3,14159. Wherefore ſay, As 3,14159 : $\sqrt{\frac{8}{9}}$ :: 365 D. 6 H. 9′ : 109 D. 14 H. 46′, the Time in which the Comet will deſcribe the Arch P L. If then $PS^2 = PM = 100000000$, we have the Parabolic Area P L S = 133333333 Parts deſcribed in 109 D. 14 H. 46′; and therefore the proportional Parts for a Day and Hour as above.

13. What thoſe diurnal and horary Areas are in different Parabolas may be thus ſhewn. Let *p r q* be a Parabola ſimilar to the former P R Q; then will the Time T of deſcribing the Arch P R be to the Time t of deſcribing the ſimilar Arch *p r*, as the periodical Time P of deſcribing a Circle on P S to the periodical Time *p* of deſcribing a Circle on *p s*, by the laſt Article. But $P : p :: PS^{\frac{3}{2}} : ps^{\frac{3}{2}} :: R^{\frac{3}{2}} : r^{\frac{3}{2}} :: T : t$; alſo the ſimilar Areas P R S = A, and *p r* S = *a*, are as the Squares of their like Sides P S and *p* S; that is, $A : a :: R^2 : r^2$. Now ſince in the ſame Figure equal Spaces are deſcribed in equal Times, whatever Number of Days or Hours are contained in T and t, the Areas A and *a* will conſiſt of as many equal Parts reſpectively; and which therefore we may call the $\frac{1}{T}$ Part of A, and $\frac{1}{t}$ Part of *a*, or *x* and *y*; ſo that $x : y :: \frac{A}{T} : \frac{a}{t} :: \frac{R^2}{R\sqrt{R}} : \frac{r^2}{r\sqrt{r}} :: \sqrt{R} : \sqrt{r}$.

14. Let the Quadrantal Area P S R of the Parabola P R Q be divided into 100 equal Parts, that is, let A = 100; then $\frac{A}{100} = 1$ of thoſe Parts, and ſo $\frac{A}{100} : R^2$. Again, let N be the Number of thoſe Parts deſcribed in 1 Day; then will this diurnal Area be $N \times \frac{A}{100} : \frac{A}{T}$

$\frac{A}{T} : N \times R^2 : \sqrt{R}$, (by *Art.* 13.) therefore $N : \frac{1}{R^{\frac{3}{2}}}$

15. In like Manner it is ſhewn, that if the Quadrantal Area $p\,r\,S$ of the Parabola $p\,r\,q$ be divided into an 100 equal Parts, and $p\,S = r$, and $n =$ Number of thoſe Parts in the diurnal Area; then $n : \frac{1}{r^{\frac{3}{2}}}$. And ſo

$N : n :: \frac{1}{R^{\frac{3}{2}}} : \frac{1}{r^{\frac{3}{2}}}$; $n = N \times \frac{1}{r^{\frac{3}{2}}}$, if $R = SP = 1$,

or the Radius of the Earth's Orbit.

16. On theſe Principles the *Cometary Calculus* depends; for in any Parabolic Orbit the Quantity $n = N \times \frac{1}{r^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ is the diurnal Area, and may therefore be eſteemed the *mean Motion* or *Anomaly* of the Comet for a Day; which multiplied by the Time (expreſs'd in Days) before or after the Comet is *in Perihelio* at P, will give the whole mean Motion or Area P R Q S for any Place of the Comet Q in its Orbit. In order to this we muſt have the Time aſcertained from Obſervation when the Planet was *in Perihelio* at P, and alſo the Perihelian Diſtance S P from the Sun; as alſo the Place in the Ecliptic at the ſame Time, the Poſition of its Nodes, and Inclination of its Orbit: All which Particulars for 24 Comets the Induſtry of the great Aſtronomer of this Age has ſupplied, *viz.* Dr. *Halley*, in his *Cometographia*; which I have tranſcribed, and added thereto the ſame Things for the laſt Comet, as they were determined by the Reverend Mr. *Betts*, from the Obſervations of Mr. Profeſſor *Bliſs* of *Oxford*, at the Obſervatory of the Right Hon. the Earl of *Macclesfield*, at *Sherbourn* in *Oxfordſhire*.

Plate LXII. Fig. 2.

17. From the Place of the Comet Q draw Q A perpendicular to the Axis; and let *a b* be a Tangent to the Curve in the Point Q, and B Q drawn perpendicular thereto; then by the Nature of the Parabola we have A B = S R, the *Semi-Latus Rectum*. And putting the given Area P Q S = *a*, and A Q = *x*, we have $\frac{1}{12}x^3 + \frac{1}{4}x = a$, or $x^3 + 3x = 12a$; which Cubic Equation reſolved

reſolved gives the Ordinate A Q, and thence we have P A; but P A + P S = S Q = Diſtance of the Comet from the Sun, which therefore is given. Therefore in the Triangle S A Q, right-angled at A, we have S Q and A Q to find the Angle Q S A; and then P S Q the Angle from the *Perihelion* is known. When this is done, all the other Particulars are the ſame as in the *Planetary Calculus*.

18. Theſe are the Principles or Elements of Calculation; which we ſhall now proceed to illuſtrate by Example, that ſo the *Praxis* may not remain ſo difficult and obſcure as it has hitherto been; and we ſhall make choice of the laſt Comet for this Purpoſe, whoſe *mean Anomaly* or diurnal *Area* is in the firſt Place to be determined.

19. In order to this, we have the conſtant mean Motion of a Comet moving in a Parabola, whoſe Perihelion-Diſtance P S = R = 1 = Semidiameter of the Earth's Orbit, *viz.* $N = \frac{100}{109\ D.\ 14\ H.\ 46} = 0.91228$, whoſe Logarithm 9.960128 is therefore always at hand for conſtant Uſe.

20. The Perihelion Diſtance P S = r = 0,22206, and its Logarithm 9,346472, as in the Table, for the Comet of 174$\frac{3}{4}$. But we have its mean Anomaly $n = N \times \frac{1}{r^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ (by *Article* 15.); therefore to find n by Logarithms the Proceſs is as follows:

The Logarithm of Perihelion-Diſtance	r =	9.346472
Which multiply by — — —		3
The Product is the Logarithm of	r^3 =	8.039416
Divide by 2, the Quotient is Log. of	$r^{\frac{3}{2}}$ =	9.019708
Arithmetical Complement is the Log. of	$\frac{1}{r^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ =	0.980292
To which add the Logarithm of	N =	9.960128
The Log. of mean Anomaly	n = 8,718 =	0.940420

$\frac{A}{T} : N \times R^2 : \sqrt{R}$, (by *Art.* 13.) therefore $N : \frac{1}{R^{\frac{3}{2}}}$.

15. In like Manner it is ſhewn, that if the Quadrantal Area $p r S$ of the Parabola $p r q$ be divided into an 100 equal Parts, and $p S = r$, and $n =$ Number of thoſe Parts in the diurnal Area; then $n : \frac{1}{r^{\frac{3}{2}}}$. And ſo

$N : n :: \frac{1}{R^{\frac{3}{2}}} : \frac{1}{r^{\frac{3}{2}}}$; $n = N \times \frac{1}{r^{\frac{3}{2}}}$, if $R = SP = 1$,

or the Radius of the Earth's Orbit.

16. On theſe Principles the *Cometary Calculus* depends; for in any Parabolic Orbit the Quantity $n = N \times \frac{1}{r^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ is the diurnal Area, and may therefore be eſteemed the *mean Motion* or *Anomaly* of the Comet for a Day; which multiplied by the Time (expreſs'd in Days) before or after the Comet is *in Perihelio* at P, will give the whole mean Motion or Area P R Q S for any Place of the Comet Q in its Orbit. In order to this we muſt have the Time aſcertained from Obſervation when the Planet was *in Perihelio* at P, and alſo the Perihelian Diſtance S P from the Sun; as alſo the Place in the Ecliptic at the ſame Time, the Poſition of its Nodes, and Inclination of its Orbit: All which Particulars for 24 Comets the Induſtry of the great Aſtronomer of this Age has ſupplied, *viz.* Dr. *Halley*, in his *Cometographia*; which I have tranſcribed, and added thereto the ſame Things for the laſt Comet, as they were determined by the Reverend Mr. *Betts*, from the Obſervations of Mr. Profeſſor *Bliſs* of *Oxford*, at the Obſervatory of the Right Hon. the Earl of *Macclesfield*, at *Sherbourn* in *Oxfordſhire*.

Plate LXII. Fig. 2.

17. From the Place of the Comet Q draw Q A perpendicular to the Axis; and let *a b* be a Tangent to the Curve in the Point Q, and B Q drawn perpendicular thereto; then by the Nature of the Parabola we have A B = S R, the *Semi-Latus Rectum*. And putting the given Area P Q S = *a*, and A Q = *x*, we have $\frac{1}{12}x^3 + \frac{1}{4}x = a$, or $x^3 + 3x = 12a$; which Cubic Equation reſolved

resolved gives the Ordinate AQ, and thence we have PA; but PA + PS = SQ = Distance of the Comet from the Sun, which therefore is given. Therefore in the Triangle SAQ, right-angled at A, we have SQ and AQ to find the Angle QSA; and then PSQ the Angle from the *Perihelion* is known. When this is done, all the other Particulars are the same as in the *Planetary Calculus*.

18. These are the Principles or Elements of Calculation; which we shall now proceed to illustrate by Example, that so the *Praxis* may not remain so difficult and obscure as it has hitherto been; and we shall make choice of the last Comet for this Purpose, whose *mean Anomaly* or diurnal *Area* is in the first Place to be determined.

19. In order to this, we have the constant mean Motion of a Comet moving in a Parabola, whose Perihelion-Distance PS = R = 1 = Semidiameter of the Earth's Orbit, *viz.* $N = \frac{100}{109\text{ D. }14\text{ H. }46} = 0.91228$, whose Logarithm 9.960128 is therefore always at hand for constant Use.

20. The Perihelion Distance PS = r = 0,22206, and its Logarithm 9,346472, as in the Table, for the Comet of 174$\frac{3}{4}$. But we have its mean Anomaly $n = N \times \frac{1}{r^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ (by *Article* 15.); therefore to find n by Logarithms the Process is as follows:

The Logarithm of Perihelion-Distance	r =	9.346472
Which multiply by — — —		3
The Product is the Logarithm of	r^3 =	8.039416
Divide by 2, the Quotient is Log. of	$r^{\frac{3}{2}}$ =	9.019708
Arithmetical Complement is the Log. of	$\frac{1}{r^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ =	0.980292
To which add the Logarithm of	N =	9.960128
The Log. of mean Anomaly	n = 8,718 =	0.940420

21. Having thus obtain'd the *diurnal Area*, if we multiply this by any Number of Days and Decimal Parts of a Day, it will give the Area P R Q S, or *mean Anomaly*, for the given Time. Thus let it be required for *January* 23 D. 6 H. 11′.

		D.	H.	M.
Then from the Time of Perihelion,	*Feb.*	19	8	11
Subduct the given Time,	*Jan.*	23	6	11
The Difference will be		27	2	1

Wherefore to Log. of diurnal Area 8.718 = 0.940420
Add the Log. of the given Time 27,0833 = 1.432702

The mean Anomaly required, = 236,1 = 2.373122

22. Having therefore the Area P R Q S = 236,1, we can find A Q = x, from the Equation $x^3 + 3x = 12a$; for if when the Quadrantal Area P S R is 100, we put S R = x = 1, then 'tis plain, $x^3 + 3x = 1 + 3 = 4 = 12a$ in that Case. Therefore when the *mean Anomaly* is but $\frac{1}{100}$ Part of this, we have $x^3 + 3x = \frac{4}{100} = 0{,}04$; which will be a constant Multiplier for reducing any given Anomaly to fit it for the Equation. Thus $0{,}04 \times 236{,}1 = 9{,}444 = x^3 + 3x$ in the present Case, which resolved according to the usual Methods, gives $x = 1{,}65$ nearly.

23. Then by the Nature of the Parabola $\frac{\overline{AQ}^2}{4PS} =$ $AP = \frac{1{,}65 \times 1{,}65}{2} = 1{,}3612$. Also $AP + PS = SQ = 1{,}8612$, the Distance of the Comet from the Sun for the given Time. But to express this Distance in the same Parts as the Sun's mean Distance from the Earth contains 1,00000, we must consider that the Perihelion-Distance P S = 0,22206; whence S R = 0,44412. Wherefore say, As 1 : 0,44412 :: 1,8612 : 0,82650, the Expression required.

24. In the Right-angled Triangle Q A S, having all the Sides, we find the Angle Q S A = 62° 36½′; whence the obtuse Angle P S Q = 117° 33½′, which is the Heliocentric Distance of the Comet from the Perihelion.

Now

Now since the Perihelion is in ♎ 17° 12′ 55″, if we subduct 117° 33′ 30″, we have the Heliocentric Longitude in ♍ 19° 39′ 25″.

25. Also the *Descending Node* is in ♏ 15° 45′ 20″, from which subtract the Comet's Place now found, the Difference 147° 55′ 55″ is the Distance of the Comet from the Node. Let the Line of the Nodes be ☊ ☋; then, since the Perihelion P is 151° 27′ 35″ distant from the Node ☊, it will be but 28° 38′ 25″ distant from the Node ☋. If then from the Angle Q S A = 62° 36½′ we deduct P S ☋ 28° 38′ 25″ = A S ☊, we shall have Q S ☊ = 30° 58′ 5″. Plate LXII. Fig. 3.

26. From Q let fall the Perpendicular Q N on the Line of Nodes; then in the Right-angled Triangle Q S N, having the Angle at S and the Side S Q, we can find Q N as follows.

As Radius	90° =	10.000000
To the Sine of the Angle Q S N = 33° 58′ =		9.747374
So is the Side S Q = 0,82650 =		9.917227
To the Length of the Side Q N = 0,46200 =		9.664601

27. Again: In the Right-angled Triangle Q N D we have the Side now found Q N, and the Angle of the Inclination of the Comet's Orbit, Q N D = 47° 9′, to find the Side or Perpendicular Q D. Thus say,

As Radius	90° =	10.000000
Is to the Sine of Inclination Q N D = 47° 9′ =		9.865138
So is the Side Q N = 0,46200 =		9.664601
To the Perpendicular Q D = 0,33860 =		9.529739

28. We can now find the Heliocentric Latitude of the Comet, or the Angle Q S D; for

As the Side Q S = 0,82650 =		9.917227
Is to the Side Q D = 0,33860 =		9.529739
So is Radius	90° =	10.000000
To Sine of Helioc. Lat. Q S D = 24° 12′ =		9.612512

29. To find the Comet's Curtate Distance from the Sun, *viz.* S D, we have this Analogy from the Right-angled Triangle Q S D.

As Radius	90° =	10.000000
To the Sine of the Angle SQD = 65° 48 =		9.960052
So is the Side SQ = 0,82650 =		9.917227
To the Curtate Diſtance SD = 0,75380 =		9.877279

30. To find the Side ND in the Right-angled Triangle QND, ſay,

As Radius	90° =	10.000000
To Co-ſine of Inclination DQN = 42° 51′ =		9.832616
So is the Side QN = 0,46200 =		9.664601
To the Side DN = 0,31420 =		9.497217

31. Then in the Right-angled Triangle NSD we can find the *Heliocentric Place of the Comet in the Ecliptic*, or Angle DSN, thus:

As the Curtate Diſtance SD = 0,75380 =		9.877279
To the Side ND = 0,31420 =		9.497217
So is Radius	90° =	10.000000
To the Sine of the Angle DSN = 24° 38′ =		9.619938
Therefore to the Place of the Node ☊,	8 15° 45 20″	
Add the Angle now found	24 38 00	
The Sum is the Helioc. Place in the Ecliptic,	♌ 10 23 20	

32. The next thing to be done is to find the Place of the Sun, and conſequently of the Earth in her Orbit for the given Time; which is calculated from the Tables in the uſual Method as follows:

	Mot. of the Sun. S. ° ′ ″		*Mot. of Perihelion.* S. ° ′ ″	
1741.	9 21 1 58	—	3 8 13 30	
3.	11 29 17 00		2 30	
Jan. 23.	00 22 40 12		3	
Hours 6	14 47			
Min. 11	27			
MeanMot.	10 13 14 24	—	3 8 16 3	
Equat. add.	1 7 39		10 13 14 24	
True Place	10 14 22 3		7 4 58 21	M. Anom.

Vol. III. *Plate* LXIII. *P.* 213.

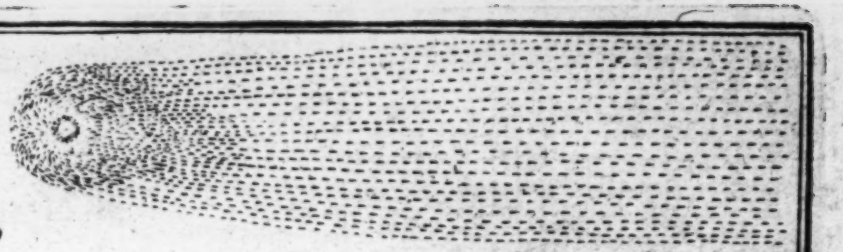


Fig. 1. p. 214.

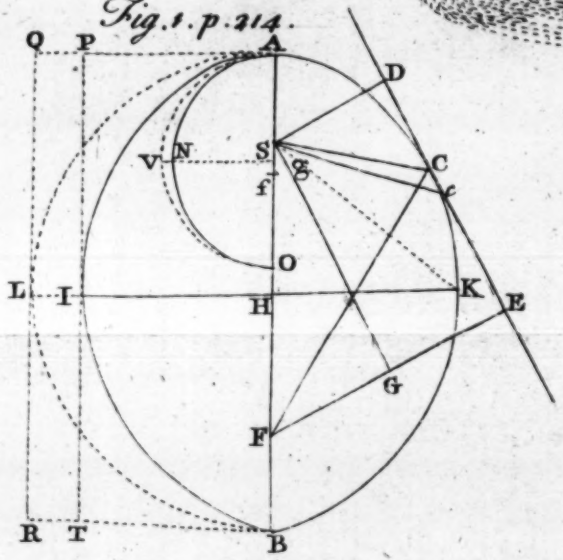


Fig. 2. p. 219.

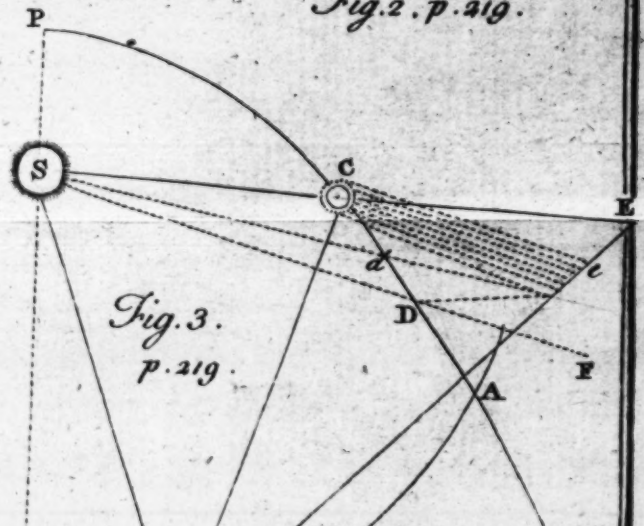
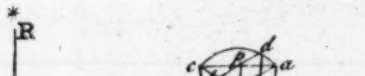


Fig. 3. p. 219.



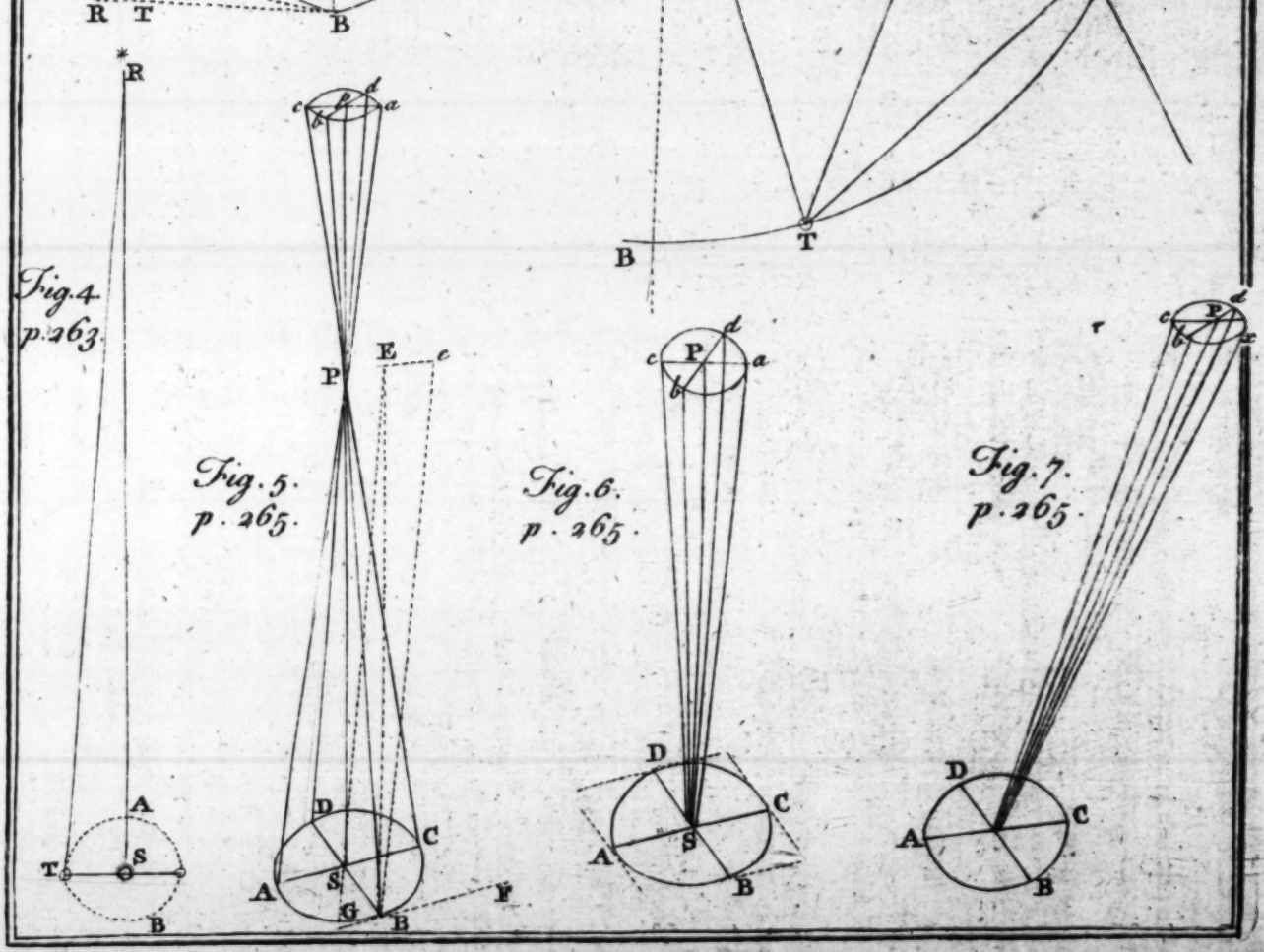


Fig. 4.
p. 263.

Fig. 5.
p. 265.

Fig. 6.
p. 265.

Fig. 7.
p. 265.

33. The Sun's Place being found, in ♒ 14° 22′ 03″, the Earth's Place will be in the oppoſite Part of the Ecliptic, *viz.* in ♌ 14° 22′ 03″ at T. If therefore from this we ſubtract the Comet's Heliocentric Place at H, we ſhall have the Arch H T = 63° 49′ 43″ = D S T, the *Angle of Commutation*. And as the Earth's mean Anomaly is 7 S. 4° 58′ 23″, the Logarithm of the Earth's Diſtance S T will be 9,993947. But S D is alſo known; therefore we can find the Angle D T S, or Elongation of the Comet from the Sun, thus:

As the Sum of the Sides ST+SD=1,74000= 0.240549
Is to their Difference ST—SD=0,23240= 9.366236
So the Tang. of ½ the Ang. $\frac{D-T}{2}$ = 58° 00′ = 10.204211

To Tang. of ½ their Diff. $\frac{D-T}{2}$ = 12° 03′ = 9.329898

34. Hence 58° + 12° 03′ = 70° 03′ = T D S, and 58° − 12° 03′ = 45° 57′ = S T D, or Longitude of the Comet from the Sun; which added to the Sun's Place at I gives the *Geocentric Longitude* of the Comet at L, in ♈ 00° 19′. And to find the *Geocentric Latitude*, or Angle D T Q, we have this Analogy:

As the Sine of Commutation TSD=64°00′=9.953650
Is to the Sine of Elongation STD=45° 57′=9.856568
So is Tang. of Helio. Lat. DSQ=24°12′=9.652650

To the Tang. of Geo. Lat. DTQ=19° 46′=9.555568

35. Thus you have the whole Proceſs of Calculation, as it relates to the Phænomena of a Comet moving in a Parabola near the Vertex, and is the ſame with that uſed for the Planets (from the 25th *Article* incluſive). And though it is certain (from what will be ſhewn by and by) that this Comet does not deſcribe a *Parabola*, but an *Ellipſis*, yet the computed Longitude and Latitude are the ſame which the Comet was obſerved to have at that very Time; whence the Accuracy of this Method ſufficiently appears: But as it is thus limited to a Parabola, and only one ſmall Part of that, and cannot be extended to determine the Axis of the Orbit, or the Time of its Revolution, I ſhall here ſupply this

great Deficiency by shewing a direct and geometrical Method of Computation of all the Phænomena of a Comet moving in any Conic Section, which was first invented by M. *Bouguer*, in *Mem. Paris.* An. 1733; which Method I shall explain, illustrate, and exemplify in the following Articles.

Plate LXIII. Fig. 1.

36. Let A K B I be the Trajectory of a Comet, A B its longest Axis, I K the shortest; S, F, the two *Foci*, in one of which the Sun is at S; C the Place of the Comet, C S its Distance from the Sun; D C E a Tangent to the Curve in the Point C; C *c* the Space passed over by the Comet in a small Particle of Time; S D, F E, Perpendiculars from the Foci to the Tangent: And draw S G parallel to D E, and join F C. Also let A N O be the elliptic Orbit of any Planet; S, *f*, its Foci. Lastly, let A L B be a Circle described on the longer Axis, A B; A P T B a Rectangle about the Ellipsis A I B; and A Q R B as the Square about the Circle A L B; and put S C $= a$, S D $= b$, C *c* $= e$, the Time in which it is described $= f$. The longer Axis of the Cometary Orbit A B $= x$, of the Planetary Orbit A O $= q$, the Circle described on the same Axis A V O $= p$; the periodical Time of the Comet $=$ t, and that of the Planet $= n$.

37. The Space C *c* described, the Distance S C, and the Angle S C D, are all known by Observation, and therefore given Quantities. The mean Distance of the Comet is A H $= \frac{1}{2} x$, and of the Planet is A g, $= \frac{1}{2} q$. And because the *Squares of the Periodical Times are as the Cubes of the mean Distances*, we have $\frac{1}{8} q^3 : \frac{1}{8} x^3 :: n^2 : t^2$; and therefore $t = \frac{n x}{q} \sqrt{\frac{x}{q}}$. (*Ann.* XXXIV. 11.)

38. It is necessary now to find another Expression of the periodical Time t, thus: Because C *c* is a very small Portion of the Orbit, it may be esteemed a Right Line, and the Sector C S *c* as an evanescent Triangle, whose Area $\frac{1}{2}$ S D $\times$ C *c* $= \frac{1}{2} be$ is given; but as the Area $\frac{1}{2} be$ is to the Time *f*, so is the whole Area of the Ellipsis A K B I $=$ A to the whole periodical Time t; that is, $t = \frac{f}{\frac{1}{2} be} \times A$.

39. Now

39. Now in order to determine the Area A, we muſt find the Semi-conjugate HK, thus: Becauſe AB = SC + FC, therefore FC = $x - a$; and by ſimilar Triangles SDC and FEC we have SC : SD :: FC : FE, that is, $a : b :: x - a : \frac{bx - ab}{a} = FE$; and therefore $FG = (FE - GE)\frac{bx - 2ab}{a}$. Again, SC : CD :: FC : CE; or $a : \sqrt{a^2 - b^2} :: x - a : \frac{x - a}{a}\sqrt{a^2 - b^2}$. Hence DE or $SG = CE + CD = \frac{x-a}{a}\sqrt{a^2 - b^2} + \sqrt{a^2 - b^2} = \frac{x}{a}\sqrt{a^2 - b^2}$. But $FG = \frac{bx - 2ab}{a}$; therefore $FS = \sqrt{SG^2 - FG^2} = \sqrt{\frac{b^2x^2 - 4ab^2x + 4a^2b^2 + a^2x - b^2x^2}{a^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{a^2x^2 - 4ab^2x + 4a^2b^2}{a^2}}$. And therefore $SH = \frac{1}{2}SF = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{a^2x - 4ab^2x + 4a^2b^2}{a^2}}$.

40. Moreover, by the Nature of an Ellipſis, SK = AH = $\frac{1}{2}x$, and therefore $\sqrt{SK^2 - SH^2} = HK = \sqrt{x^2 - \frac{a^2x^2 + 4ab^2x - 4a^2b^2}{4a^2}} = \frac{b}{a}\sqrt{ax - a^2}$; therefore $IK = 2HK = \frac{2b}{a}\sqrt{ax - a^2}$. Conſequently, $\frac{xb}{a}\sqrt{ax - aa} = APTB$, the Semi-Area of the Ellipſe. Let Q = Diameter of the Circle ALB, and P its Periphery; then ſince $\frac{1}{4}LH \times P = \frac{1}{4}QP$ is the Area of the Circle, we ſhall have $Q^2 : \frac{1}{4}QP$ ($:: \frac{1}{2}Q^2 : \frac{1}{8}QR$) :: AQRB : ALB :: APTB : AIB :: $q^2 : \frac{1}{4}qp$. That is, $q^2 : \frac{1}{4}qp :: \frac{xb}{a}\sqrt{ax - aa} : \frac{bpx}{4a\frac{1}{q}}$ $\sqrt{ax - a^2} = AIB$. But $2AIB = AIKB = A = \frac{bpx}{}$

$\frac{bpx}{2aq}\sqrt{ax-aa}$; therefore the above Expreſſion $t=\frac{f}{\frac{1}{2}be}A=\frac{fpx}{aeq}\sqrt{ax-aa}$. Then $t=\frac{nx}{q}\sqrt{\frac{x}{q}}=\frac{fpx}{aeq}\sqrt{ax-aa}$. And, reducing the Equation, we get $x=\frac{af^2p^2q}{f^2p^2q-ae^2n^2}=AB$, the principal Axis of the Section, or Trajectory of the Comet.

41. If we ſubſtitute this Value of x in the Equation above for t, we ſhall have $t=\frac{p^3f^3n^2a^{\frac{1}{2}}}{qf^2p^2-ae^2n^2}^{\frac{1}{2}}=$ the Periodical Time. Alſo becauſe the Conjugate $IK=\frac{2b}{a}\sqrt{ax-aa}=c$, therefore $x=\frac{c^2a^2+4b^2q^2}{4b^2a}=\frac{af^2p^2q}{f^2p^2q-ae^2n^2}$; whence $c=IK=2bex\sqrt{\frac{a}{f^2p^2q-ae^2n^2}}$.

42. From theſe Equations it plainly appears, that when the Velocity of the Comet is ſuch that $f^2p^2q=ae^2n^2$, the Axis x is *infinite*, and conſequently the Trajectory will be a *Parabola*; but if eae^2n^2 be greater than f^2p^2q, it will be an *Hyperbola*; in both which Caſes the Comet can never return: But in all Caſes where f^2p^2q is greater than eae^2n^2, the Comet will deſcribe *Ellipſes*; among which we reckon that of the *Circle*, where $x=2a=\frac{af^2p^2q}{f^2p^2q-eae^2n^2}$, and hence $e=Cc=\frac{fp}{n}\sqrt{\frac{q}{2a}}$, the Arch of the Circle deſcribed in one Day.

43. Let the Planet we ſuppoſed to deſcribe the Ellipſis ANO be the Earth; then will its mean Diſtance $\frac{1}{2}q=100000$ equal Parts; and ſo $q=200000$, and $p=628318$. Alſo the Periodical Time $n=1$ Year; and then if Cc be the Space deſcribed in

in one Day, we have $f = \frac{1}{365,2565} = 0.0027378$, Then alſo the other Expreſſions will become for the principal Axis $x = \frac{591826599535 \times a}{591826599535 - a e^2}$, and for the Periodical Time $t = \frac{4750560000 \times a^{\frac{3}{2}}}{591826599535 - a e^2 \frac{3}{2}}$.

44. Hence it appears, that if Obſervations could be made ſufficiently exact to determine the Diſtance of the Comet, and the Space it moved over in its Orbit in one Day, then the Axes of the Orbit and the Periodical Time of the Comet may as well be computed as thoſe of a Planet; but this is a Matter of the greateſt Nicety, and of courſe the greateſt Difficulty, becauſe the *elliptic Orbit* of a Comet, if it be ſuch, can ſcarcely be diſtinguiſhed by Obſervation (however well made) from a Parabolical Orbit, in all that Part of the Orbit which the Comet deſcribes during its Appearance. Hence the Quantity $a e^2$ will generally come out either equal to, or greater than the Number 591826599535, and ſo gives the Axis x infinite or negative: And if it chance that $a e^2$ be leſs than the ſaid Number, then if a or e be not defined to the laſt Degree of Exactneſs, the Axis x, and Periodical Time t, will be very different from the Truth. But more of this in another Place.

45. A *Parabola* therefore is fully ſufficient to account for all the Circumſtances and Phænomena of a Comet's Motion during the Time of its Appearance; as Sir *Iſaac* has ſhewn with reſpect to the Comets of 166$\frac{1}{2}$, 1680, 1682, 1683, 1723, and Mr. *Betts* for the laſt Comet of 174$\frac{1}{2}$. And that the Reader may ſee the wonderful Agreement between the Theory (though grounded on the *Parabolical Hypotheſis*) and the Phænomena of Longitude and Latitude of the Comet by Obſervation, I ſhall here ſubjoin a Table exhibiting the ſame both by Computation and Obſervation, and the Differences between them ſeverally for each reſpective Time of Obſervation.

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	Equal Time at *Oxford*.			Longit. Comet observed.			North Latit. observed.			Longit. Comet computed.			North Latit. computed.			Diff. in Long.	Diff. in Lat.
	D.	H.	′	☌	°	′	″	°	′	″	☌	°	′	″	°	′	″	″	″
Dec. 1743.	23	5	32	♈.	14	10	2	17	33	11	♈.	14	10	3	17	33	37	1 −	26 −
	27	5	7½	♈.	12	2	25	17	51	29	♈.	12	2	26	17	51	47	1 −	18 −
	28	5	1½	♈.	11	32	11	17	55	54	♈.	11	32	14	17	56	8	3 −	14 −
	31	4	44	♈.	10	4	57	18	9	3	♈.	10	5	16	18	8	53	19 −	10 +
		5	53	♈.	10	4	11	18	9	37	♈.	10	3	55	18	9	6	16 +	31 +
Jan. 1743.	12	9	10	♈.	4	52	5	18	59	37	♈.	4	52	24	18	59	13	19 −	24 +
	12	6	20	♈.	4	31	40	19	2	31	♈.	4	31	13	19	2	49	27 +	18 −
		8	20	♈.	4	29	27	19	3	32	♈.	4	26	6	19	3	12	21 +	20 +
	16	6	33	♈.	3	18	43	19	15	47	♈.	3	18	27	19	15	13	16 +	34 +
		8	00	♈.	3	17	31	19	16	7	♈.	3	17	00	19	15	30	31 +	37 +
	23	6	11	♈.	0	19	45	19	42	30	♈.	0	19	16	19	42	1	29 +	29 +
	23	7	29	♈.	0	17	58	19	42	47	♈.	0	17	45	19	42	12	13 +	35 +
Feb. 1743.	5	7	31½	♓.	21	52	37	19	35	00	♓.	21	52	56	19	34	42	19 −	18 +
	11	6	37½	♓.	14	42	45	17	23	30	♓.	14	42	58	17	24	5	13 −	35 −
	12	6	33	♓.	13	10	36	16	38	40	♓.	13	10	52	16	39	17	16 −	37 −
	13	6	25	♓.	11	32	50	15	43	45	♓.	11	33	16	15	44	16	26 −	31 −
	16	23	41½	♓.	5	9	14	10	17	40	♓.	5	9	1	10	18	8	13 +	28 −
	17	23	35	♓.	3	37	37	18	15	39	♓.	3	37	11	18	16	3	26 +	24 −

46. Having

46. Having thus ſhewn the ſeveral Affections of a Comet's Motion, I ſhall conclude with a Word or two in relation to their *Tails*. The Atmoſphere of Comets conſiſting of a very fine Vapour, will, when the Comet is in its *Aphelion*, be nearly ſpherical, and its Denſity greateſt. As the Comet approaches the Sun, the Sun's Heat enters the Atmoſphere, and rarifies it by Degrees, cauſing at the ſame Time the fineſt Part to raiſe from the Comet, like the Flame from a Candle, towards the Parts averſe from the Sun; and as the Comet comes nearer and nearer the Sun, this Fume will riſe and extend itſelf to greater and greater Lengths, and make what is called the *Tail* of the Comet; ſo that when they are viewed with a Teleſcope, the *Nucleus*, Atmoſphere, and Tail of a Comet appear much like what is repreſented in the Figure. Plate LXIII. Fig. 2.

47. The Length of the Tail is thus found by Obſervation. Let S be the Sun, C the Comet, T the Earth, C *e* the Comet's Tail; draw T S, T C, S C, and T *e* touching the End of the Tail, and meeting the Line S C produced in E. The Place of the Sun and Comet being known, the Angle T C E is known (for T C E = S T C + C S T). Alſo the Angle of Deviation E C *e* is known from Obſervation; whence T C *e* is known. Moreover the Angle T C *e* is known alſo by Obſervation. Therefore in the Triangle T C *e*, having the two Angles T C *e* and C T *e*, and the Side T C, (from the Theory) we can find the Side C *e*, which is the Length of the Tail. And thus they have been found to be 40, 60, and 80 Millions of Miles. Fig. 3.

48. Draw S *e* cutting the Comet's Orbit in *d*; then becauſe the whole Motion of a Particle from C to *e* may be reſolved into two Motions C *d* and *e d*, 'tis plain, ſince *d e* is that directly averſe to the Sun, the Comet would have poſſeſs'd the Point *d* when the Particle at *e* firſt roſe from the *Nucleus*, if the Motion had been every where in the Direction of S *e*, as the Line S *e* kept moving from S *e* to S E.

49. But ſince this is not the Caſe, but the Particles move in the oblique Direction C *e*, therefore parallel to C *e* draw S F cutting the Orbit in D, and join D *e*; then will the compound Motion C *e*, ariſing from the

progreſſive Motion of the Comet in the Direction C D, and its Motion of Aſcent in the Direction C *e*, give the Point D for the Comet's Place when firſt the Particle at *e* began to aſcend from the *Nucleus*.

50. Now the Time in which the Comet deſcribes any given Part of its Orbit D C may be found from the Theory, and conſequently the Time of the Aſcent of the Tail of the Comet from the *Nucleus* to the Extremity *e*. Thus I have finiſhed a *compleat Compendium of the* NEWTONIAN *Philoſophy of* COMETS.

Jam patet horrificis quæ ſit via flexa Cometis;
Jam non miramur barbati Phænomena Aſtri.

Dr. HALLEY.

Mathematical Principles OF CHRONOLOGY.

AN APPENDIX TO LECTURE XI.

Of TIME, *and its* MEASURE *by the* Celeſtial *Motions. Of the* YEAR Tropical *and* Sydereal, *and the Quantity of each. The Time of the* EQUINOXES *and* SOLSTICES *determined by* Calculation. *Of* DAYS, Natural *and* Artificial. *The* EQUATION *of* Time *explained. Of* WEEKS. *Of* MONTHS, Periodical *and* Synodical. *Of* Old *and* New Style. *Of* CYCLES; *the* CYCLE *of the* SUN, *and* Dominical LETTERS; *the* METONIC Cycle, *or* Cycle *of the* MOON, *and* GOLDEN NUMBERS. *The* Cycle *of* INDICTION. *The* Dionyſian PERIOD, *or* Paſchal Cycle. *The* Julian PERIOD. *The* Aſtronomical Principles *of* CHRONOLOGY, *by Sir* ISAAC NEWTON, *explained and exemplified.*

1. I SHALL here give the Reader an Idea of the YEAR, as the grand and original Meaſure of Time, and derived from the Aſtronomical Principles of the Earth's Motion; and then afterwards conſider its Subdiviſions and Diſtributions into leſſer Parts, as *Months*, *Days*, *Hours*, *Minutes*, *Seconds*, *Thirds*, &c. for the Purpoſes of common Life, and the Uſes of Chronology, Hiſtory, and other Sciences.

2. TIME is in itſelf a flowing Quantity, meaſuring the Duration of Things; and its Flux is always equable and uniform; and therefore to eſtimate the Quantity of Time, we ſhould meaſure it by ſomething that is in its own Nature always of one and the ſame Tenor. For this Purpoſe we have no Expedient ſo convenient as that of Motion; and becauſe the Meaſure of Time ought to be permanent, we can find no other Motion fit for this Purpoſe but that of the Heavenly Bodies.

3. AMONG theſe, none of the Motions are ſo obvious to every Body, and plain to common Senſe, as that of the *Sun* and *Moon*; which therefore have been agreed upon by the Conſent of all Nations for this End, and indeed this ſeems to have been a principal Part of the Deſign of their Creation. For we are told they were appointed for

for *Times and Seaſons, for Days and for Years*, Gen. i. That is, the Sun, by his Diurnal Motion, affords the Meaſure for DAYS, and by his Annual Motion the Meaſure for YEARS; and the Moon, by her Revolutions, gives the Meaſure of another Part of Time we call MONTHS.

4. FOR it is a compleat Revolution of thoſe Luminaries that conſtitutes a Year, a Month, and a Day in the Abſtract, or abſolutely conſidered. Hence it is neceſſary to conſider the Point which is to be eſteemed the *Exordium* or Beginning of theſe Revolutions. And this, with reſpect to the Annual Revolution of the Sun, is fixed in that Point of the Ecliptic, which is the Beginning of *Aries*; and the Time which the Sun takes in going from, and returning to this Point again, is called a YEAR.

5. ALSO the Space of Time which the Sun takes to compleat one Revolution about the Earth, is call'd a *Natural Day*, or the *Nychthemeron*, including a Common Day and Night; which Space of Time is ſubdivided into 24 equal Parts, we call HOURS; and each of theſe are again ſubdivided into 60 equal Parts or Minutes; each of theſe again into 60 other equal Parts call'd Second Minutes, or Seconds; each of theſe into

into Thirds, and ſo on in a Sexageſimal Subdiviſion for any leſſer Parts of Time.

6. Now, if this firſt Point or Beginning of *Aries* were fix'd, each Annual Revolution of the Sun would be conſtantly the ſame, and therefore a juſt and equal Meaſure of the Year, which is call'd the *Periodical Year*, as being the Time of the Earth's Period about the Sun; and which conſiſts of 365 D. 6 H. 9′ 14″. For ſo long is the Earth in departing from any fixed Point in the Heavens, and returning to the ſame again.

7. BUT ſince, as we have ſhewn (*Annot.* CXLI.) the ſeveral Points of the Ecliptic have a retrograde Motion, 'tis eaſy to underſtand, that by this Receſſion of the Equinox it will, as it were, meet the Sun, and cauſe that the Sun ſhall arrive to the Equinox, or firſt Point of *Aries*, before his Revolution is compleated. And therefore this Space of time (which is call'd the *Tropical Year*) is not ſo long as the former; for by Obſervations made at the Diſtance of many Years of the Time of two Equinoxes, and dividing the Time elapſed between by the Number of Revolutions, the Quotient will ſhew the Quantity of this *Tropical Year* to be 365 D. 5 H. 48′ 57″; which is 20′ 17″ leſs than the Periodical Year.

8. THE

Vol III. Plate LXIV. P. 225.

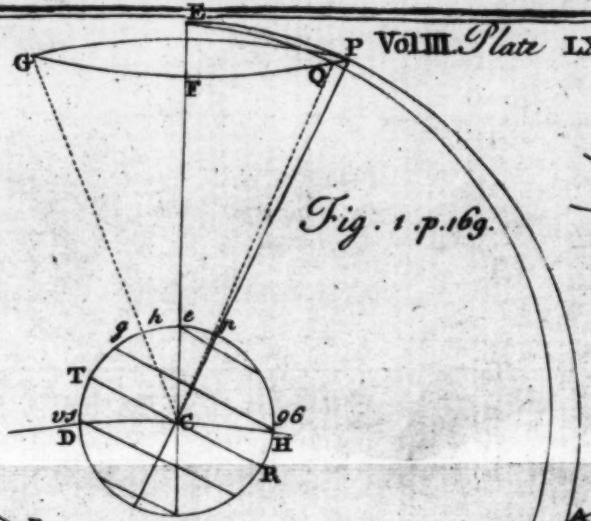


Fig. 1. p. 169.

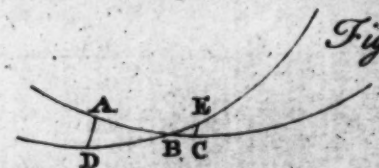


Fig. 2. p. 225.

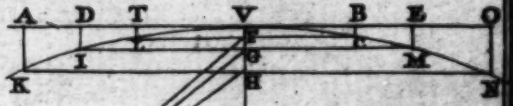


Fig. 3. p. 225.

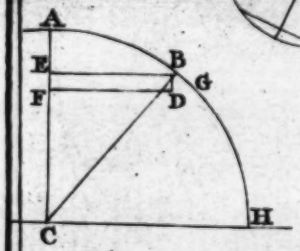
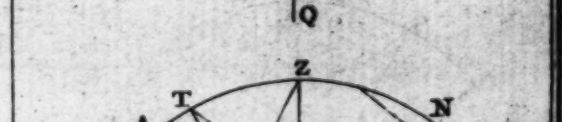


Fig. 7. p. 185.



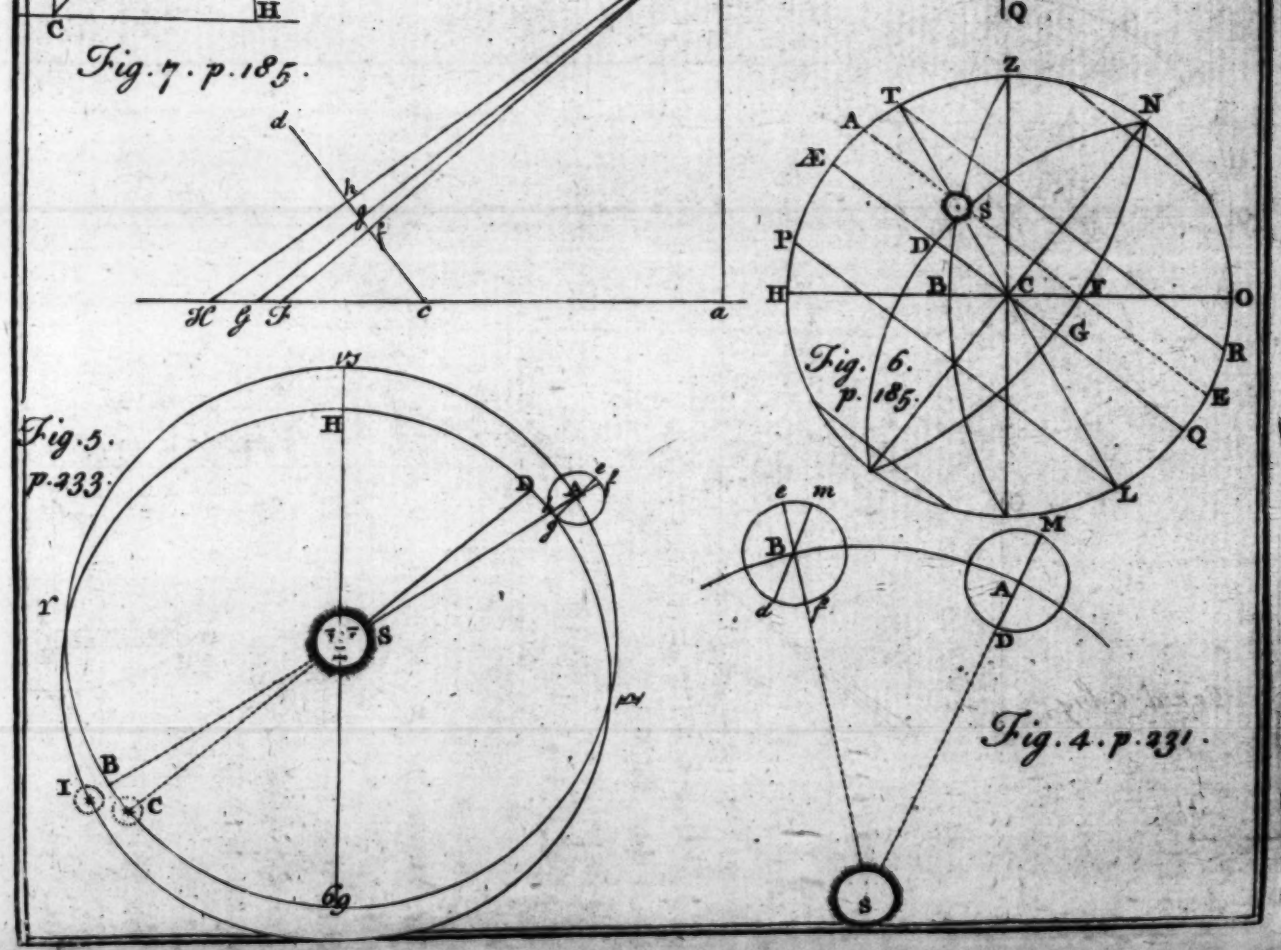

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Fig. 7. p. 185.
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Fig. 6. p. 185.
Fig. 5. p. 233.
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Fig. 4. p. 231.
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8. THE Beginning of the Year, or Time when the Sun enters the Equinox, is thus determined by Obſervation. Let A B C be a Portion of the Equinoctial, and D B E an Arch of the Ecliptic; then with a very nice Inſtrument take the Meridian Altitude of the Sun, the Day before and after the Equinox; the Difference between theſe Altitudes and that of the Equator will be the Sun's Declination on thoſe two Days, which ſuppoſe to be A D and E C; which being thus known and the Angle of Obliquity A B D = E B C = 23° 29′, we find the Arch D B and E B; and therefore we ſay, As D B + E B is to D B, ſo is 24 Hours to the Time between the firſt Obſervation and Moment of the Sun's Ingreſs to the Equinoctial Point B. Plate LXIV. Fig. 2.

9. BUT the Quantity of the Tropical Year is better defined from a Calculation of the Moments of the Solſtices. The Invention of which curious and moſt certain Method was owing to our late celebrated Dr. *Halley*; and is founded on an eaſy Obſervation, and therefore practicable by any Perſon but moderately ſkilled in the Conic Geometry. The Method is as follows: Let AVO repreſent a ſmall Portion of the Tropic, which the Ecliptic K V M touches in the Solſtitial Point V. Suppoſe the Sun Fig. 3.

at ſeveral Times near the Solſtice be in the Points K, I, L, V, C, M, N, then will the Right Lines T L, I D; B C, E M, *&c.* (perpendicular to the Tropic A O) be the Deficiencies of the Sun's Declination at thoſe Times from his greateſt Declination in V.

10. AND from the Elements of Geometry, the Subtenſes T L, D I, *&c.* of the Angle of Contact A V K, are as the Squares of the Conterminal Arches V L, V I, *&c.* that is, of the Lines V T, V D, *&c.* which are nearly equal to thoſe Arches. Now when the Sun is in L, Part of its Path that Day will be the Line L C; and when in M, the Line I M, drawn parallel to A O. Let V Q be Part of the Solſtitial Colure; then we have V T = E F, and V D = G I, *&c.* alſo V F = T L, V G = D I, *&c.* whence L F² : I G² :: V F : V G, *&c.* ſo that the Figure K V N has really the Property of a Parabola, and may be taken for ſuch, without any ſenſible Error.

11. THEREFORE let three Points F, G, H, in the Axis V Q be determined by Obſervation thus; let *a b* be an upright Object, *a c* the Ground or Horizon, and *c d* a Plane ſet nearly perpendicular to the Sun's Rays at Noon. Then let the Points *h*, *f*, *g*, on the Plane mark the Shadow of the Apex *b*, on three ſeveral Days at Noon; ſuppoſe

two

two before, and one after the Solſtice. By this Means we have the Proportion of Diſtance between the Points F H and F G, for as $fh : fg :: FH : FG$. By the firſt Obſervation from the Point H the Sun's Place at K is given; by the ſecond, from the Point F, we have the Place at L; and by the third having G, we have the Point M in the Curve.

12. Now let the Time between the firſt and ſecond Obſervation A T (= K L) = a; the Time between the ſecond and third Obſervation T E (= L V M) = b, F H = c, F G = d, and T V = x = the Time between the ſecond Obſervation and the Moment of the Solſtice, to be found. Then A V = $a + x$, and V E = $b - x$; and let the *Latus Rectum* of the Parabola be p. Then *(per Conics)* we have $x^2 = VF \times p$, and therefore VF $= \frac{x^2}{p}$. In like Manner $VH = \frac{a^2+2ax+x^2}{p}$, and $VG = \frac{b^2-2bx+a^2}{p}$, therefore FH $(= VH - VF = \frac{a^2+2ax}{p} = c$, and FG $(= VG - VF) = \frac{b^2-2bx}{p} = d$; wherefore $p = \frac{a^2+2ax}{c} = \frac{b^2-2bx}{d}$; and reduce-

ing the Equation, we have $x = \frac{b^2 c - a^2 d}{2ad + 2bc}$ = T V, the Time required.

13. BUT if the Order of the Obſervations be ſuch, as that the Obſervation of the Shadow of the *Gnomon* in *f* is exactly in the Middle between thoſe of the Shadow in *b* and *g*; then will A T = T E, and ſo *a* *b*, and the Equation will become $x = \frac{ac - ad}{2d + 2e}$ = T V; which gives this Analogy, 2 *d* + 2 *c* : *c* — *d* : : *a* : *x*, that is, 2 F G + 2 F H : G H : : A T : T V.

14. I SHALL illuſtrate this Calculation by an Example of each Caſe. In the Year 1500, *Bernard Walker*, in the Month of *June*, at *Nuremberg*, obſerved the Chord of the Sun's Diſtance from the Zenith by a large Inſtrument, as follows;

June	2, 45467			*June*	8, 44975
June	9, 44934	} and	{	*June*	12, 44883
June	16, 44990			*June*	16, 44990

The Difference of theſe Chords are equal very near to the ſmall Diſtances F G and F H; therefore *c* = 533, and *d* = 56, and *c* — *d* = 477; and ſince the Time was 7 Days between Obſervation, therefore *a* = 7. Whence we have 1178 : 477 : : 7 : 2 D. 20 H.

20 H. 2′, which added to the Time of the middle Obſervation, gives *June* 11 D. 20′ H. 2′ for the Time of the Solſtice.

15. AGAIN, by the other three Obſervations, we have $c = 107$, $d = 92$, $c - d = 15$, and $a = 4$; wherefore ſay, As 398 : 15 : : 4 D. = 96 H. : 3 H. 37′, the Difference between the 2d Obſervation, *June* 12, and the Moment of the Solſtice, which therefore muſt be *June* 11 D. 20 H. 23′, which is but 21′ different from the former. The Time of the Tropic therefore, in *Anno* 1500, we may conclude was *June* 11 D. 20 H. 12′.

16. WE will now give an Example of the former Method by the Shadow of a Gnomon 55 Feet high, which *Gaſſendus* at *Marſeilles* made uſe of for determining the Proportion of the Gnomon to its Solſtitial Shade. This he did in the Year 1636, and the Experiments were as follow.

June

19, 20, 21, 22	New Style, The Shadow	31766, 31753, 3175½, 31759	Parts, of which the *Gnomon* was 89428.

Here indeed the End of the Shadow, inſtead of being received on the Plane *c d*, perpendicular to the Rays, was taken on

the horizontal Line, where the Points f, g, h, are referred to F, G, H, in three of the Obſervations; yet is the Ratio between $F\,H$ and $F\,G$ the ſame nearly as the Ratio between $f\,h$ and $f\,g$, becauſe the Rays at that Diſtance from b, in ſo ſmall an Angle, differ little from parallel Rays.

17. HENCE the Caſe of the Problem is ſtill the ſame. Therefore, let the Shadow, on *June* 19, be $a\,H = 31766$; on the 21ſt, $a\,F = 31751$; and on the 22d, $a\,G = 31759$; then $2\,c = 30$, $2\,d = 16$, $c - d = 7$, and $a = 2$, $b = 1$; then the Theorem $\frac{c\,b^2 - d\,a^2}{2\,a\,d + 2\,b\,c} = 0{,}274 =$ 00 D. 17 H. 25′, which is the Time by which the Solſtice preceded the ſecond Obſervation. The Solſtice therefore was on *June* 20 D. 17 H. 25′, *N. S.* or *June* 10 D. 17 H. 25′ *O. S.*

18. THE Difference between the Time of this and the other Solſtice is 1 D. 2 H. 47′: of which 1 D. 1 H. 12′ ariſes from the Deficiency of the Length of the Tropical Year from that of the *Julian* Year, (as will by and by appear) and the other Part 1 H. 45′ from the Progreſſion of the Sun's Apogæum during that Space of Time, *viz.* 136 Years.

19. THE

19. THE DAYS are the next Part of Time we ſhall conſider. Theſe may be divided into *Solar* and *Sidereal* Days. The *Solar Day* is that Space of Time which intervenes between the Sun's departing from any one Meridian, and its Return to the ſame again. But a *Sidereal Day* is the Space of Time which happens between the Departure of a Star from and its Return to the ſame Meridian again. And each of theſe are divided into 24 equal Parts, or *Hours*.

20. BECAUSE the Diurnal Motion of the Earth about its Axis is equable, every Revolution will be performed in the ſame Time; and therefore all the *Sidereal Days*, and the Hours of thoſe Days, will be equal. And on the other hand, the *Solar Days* are all unequal, and that on two Accounts, *viz.* becauſe of the Elliptic Figure of the Earth's Orbit, and becauſe of the Obliquity of the Ecliptic to the Equator.

21. THIS will appear as follows. Let S be the Sun, A B a Part of the Ecliptic, A the Centre of the Earth, and M D a Meridian whoſe Plane paſſes through the Sun. Now in the Time of one Revolution about its Axis, let the Earth be carried about the Sun from A to B, and then the Meridian Plate LXIV. Fig. 4.

will be in the Poſition *m d*, parallel to the former M D. But 'tis plain, the Meridian *m d* is not yet directed to the Sun, nor will not, till by its angular Motion it has attained the Situation *e f*, deſcribing the Angle *e* B *m* = B S A; whence it appears that all the *Solar Days* are longer than the Time of one Revolution, or *Sidereal Day*.

22. IF the Earth revolved in the Plane of the Equator, and in a Circle about the Sun, then would the Angle A S B, and conſequently the Angle *e* B *m* be always of the ſame Quantity, and therefore the Time of deſcribing the ſaid Angle *e* B *m* would always be equal, and ſo all the ſolar Days would be equal among themſelves. But neither of theſe two Caſes have Place in Nature.

23. FOR by the Earth's Theory, founded on the niceſt Obſervations, the Orbit is an *Ellipſis*, and therefore (as we have ſhewn) her annual Motion cannot be equable, or the Angle A S B deſcribed in the ſame Space of Time will not be equal; for in the Aphelion, the Velocity of the Earth will be leſs than in the Perihelion, therefore alſo the Arch A B will be leſs, and conſequently the ſimilar Arch *e m*, and therefore

alſo

alſo the Time of deſcribing it; whence it appears, the Part of Time to be added to the Sidereal Day, to compleat the Solar Day, is always variable.

24. THE other Part of the Equation of Time (and moſt conſiderable) is that which ariſes from the Plane of the Earth's Orbit or Ecliptic being inclined to that of the Equator or Plane of the Diurnal Motion; to explain which, let ♈ ♑ ♎ be a Semicircle of the Ecliptic, and ♈ H ♎ of the Equinoctial, S the Centre of the Sun, and A that of the Earth in the third Quarter of the Ecliptic; *b f* the Meridian paſſing through the true Sun S, and its apparent Place at I in the firſt Quarter of the Ecliptic ♈ ♋. Plate LXIV. Fig. 5.

25. SUPPOSE, now, the Motion of the Earth in every Reſpect equable, and firſt that it ſat out from ♎, and proceeded in the Equator in a given Time to D, the Sun would apparently deſcribe in the ſame Time the Arch of the Equator ♈ I. Again, ſuppoſe it ſat out from the ſame Point ♎, and ſpent the ſame Time with the ſame equable Velocity in the Ecliptic, it would arrive to the Point A, ſo that the Arch ♎ A = ♎ D, and ♈ I = ♈ C. Then 'tis evident, as the Earth revolves about its Axis from Weſt to

East, the Meridian of any Place will first arrive at the Sun I in the Ecliptic, and afterwards at the Sun C in the Equinoctial; that is, the Time of Noon by the Sun in the Ecliptic will be sooner than that Noon which would happen by the Sun in the Equinoctial; and that by the Quantity of the Arch *b* D turned into Time.

26. Now the Arch *b* D = B C is the Difference of the Sun's Longitude ♈ I or ♈ C, and his Right Ascension ♈ B. Draw *g e* parallel to D C, and the Angle *e* A *f* will be equal to the Angle D S *h*, and the Arch *e f* similar to the Arch D *b*; therefore the Time in which the Meridian *h f* revolves into the Situation *e f*, is that which is to be added to the Ecliptic Noon to equate it with the Time of the Equinoctial Noon in the first and third Quarters of the Ecliptic. In the second and fourth Quarter, the said Equation is to be subtracted, as would easily appear by making the same Construction there.

27. Now because in different Parts of the Quadrant this Arch D *b* or B C is of a different Length, the *Equation of Time* will be a variable Quantity; and therefore since the Motion and Time measured by the Sun in the Equinoctial is always equal, (there being

being nothing to make it otherwiſe) it follows, that the Times (*i. e.* the Days) meaſured by the Sun in the Ecliptic muſt be always unequal; or, in other Words, the *Solar Days* are ſometimes ſhorter, ſometimes longer, than the *equal Time* meaſured out in the Equinoctial.

28. IT has been ſhewn already, that the True Motion of the Earth precedes the mean in the firſt Semicircle of Anomaly, and is preceded by the Mean in the ſecond. Therefore while the Earth is going from the Aphelion to the Perihelion, or while the Sun apparently moves from the Apogæum to the Perigæum, the Apparent Time will be before the Mean, and in the other Semicircle of Anomaly it will be after it. The Difference of theſe Motions converted into Time is the *Equation of Time* in this Reſpect, and is to be ſubtracted from the Apparent Time to gain the Mean, or added to the Mean to gain the Apparent, in the firſt Semicircle of Anomaly, and *vice verſa* in the latter.

29. Now both theſe Parts of the Equation of Time are calculated by Aſtronomers, for every Degree of Anomaly, and for every Degree of the Sun's Longitude in the Ecliptic, and diſpoſed in two ſeveral Tables,

Tables, with Directions for *adding and ſubtracting*, as the Caſe requires; ſo that at all Times the true or equal Time may be had. And from thence it appears that the apparent Time, or that ſhewn by the Sun, *viz.* by a *Sun-dial*, is but four Days in the whole Year the ſame with the mean or equal Time ſhewn by a good *Clock* or *Watch*, *viz.* about *April* the 15th, *June* the 17th, *Auguſt* the 31ſt, and *December* the 24th. Alſo about the 23d of *October* the Equation is greateſt of all in the Year, being then about 16′ 11″, Clocks being then ſo much ſlower than *Sun-dials*.

30. As the Solar Days are unequal, the Hours muſt be ſo of Courſe; and hence it appears, that there is no natural Body which can by its Motion meaſure Time truly or equally; and the only way to do this is by the artificial Contrivance of Clocks, Watches, Clepſydræ, Hour-Glaſſes, *&c.*

31. IN different Parts of the World, the natural Day has a different Beginning. The ancient *Egyptians* began their Day at Midnight, as do alſo the modern Nations of *France*, *Spain*, *Great-Britain*, and moſt Parts of *Europe*. The *Jews*, with the *Germans*, begin their Day at Sun-ſetting. The *Babylonians*

Babylonians began theirs at Sun-riſing. And the Aſtronomers begin the Day at Noon, and reckon on to twenty-four Hours, and not twice twelve, as we do by our Clocks in civil Life.

32. A WEEK is another common Meaſure of Time conſiſting of ſeven Days, and becauſe the Ancients ſuppoſed the ſeven Planets had an Influence upon the Earth and all terreſtrial Things, they allotted the firſt Hour of each Day to the Planet they ſuppoſed then to preſide; from whence the ſeveral Days of the Week received their Names. Thus *Sunday* was *Dies Solis*, i. e. the Day of the *Sun*; *Monday* was *Dies Lunæ*, i. e. the Day of the *Moon*; *Tueſday* was *Dies Martis*, i. e. the Day of *Tuiſco* or *Mars*; *Wedneſday* was *Dies Mercurii*, i. e. the Day of *Wooden* or *Mercury*; *Thurſday* was *Dies Jovis*, i. e. the Day of *Thor* or *Jupiter*; *Friday* was *Dies Veneris*, i. e. the Day of *Friga* or *Venus*; and *Saturday* was *Dies Saturni*, i. e. the Day of *Saturn*.

33. A MONTH is another Part of Time, ſo call'd from the Moon, becauſe it is the Time of her Revolution about the Earth, and is therefore alſo call'd a *Lunation*. If we reſpect the Revolution of the Moon from any fixed Point in the Heavens (as a Star) to the ſame again, it is call'd a *Periodical*

riodical Month, and consists of 27 D. 7 H. 43'. But if we regard the Time that passes between one Conjunction or New-Moon, and the next following, it is call'd a *Synodical Month*, and is equal to 29 D. 12 H. 44'.

34. THESE now mentioned are the *Astronomical Years*, *Months*, and *Days*. But those used in common Life are somewhat different. Thus the Civil Month is a Space of 28, 29, 30, or 31 Days, and 12 Synodic Months make 354 Days, which is call'd a *Civil Lunar Year*; and a Civil Solar Year is the Space of 365 Days. Therefore to equate the *Civil Lunar* to the *Solar Year*, 11 Days are to be added, which were call'd by the *Greeks Epamogenæ*, and by us the *Epacts*.

35. THE *Civil Soli-Lunar* Year of 365 Days, being short of the true by 5 H. 48' 57", occasion'd the Beginning of the Year to run forwards through the Seasons one Day nearly in four Years, and in 1460 Years through all the Months of the Year. On this Account *Julius Cæsar* ordain'd that every fourth Year *one Day* should be added to *February*, by causing the 24th Day to be reckon'd twice; and because this 24th of *February* was the Sixth *(Sextilis)* before the Kalends of *March*, there were in this Year two of those *Sextiles*, which gave the Name

of *Biſſextile* to this Year. The Year, thus corrected, was from thence call'd the *Julian Year*.

36. BUT the ſix Hours, added by *Julius Cæſar*, is too much, that is, exceeds 5 H. 48′ 57″ by 11′ 3″, and therefore the Sun each Year begins his Courſe 11′ 3″ before the *Julian* Year is ended, which in 131 Years amounts to a whole Day. Hence at the Council of *Nice*, A. D. 325, (at which the Time of *Eaſter* was fixed) the Vernal Equinox being upon the 21ſt Day of *March*, it was found in the Year 1582 to happen on the 11th of *March*, 10 Days ſooner than before.

37. POPE *Gregory* XIII. thought the Kalendar too erroneous, and reſolved to reform it, by reſtoring the Equinox to its former Place in the Year, *viz.* to the 21ſt of *March*. To do this, he took 10 Days out of the Kalendar, by ordering the 5th of *October* 1582 to be call'd the 15th; and to prevent the Regreſs of the Equinox for the future, ordered every 100dth Year to conſiſt of only 365 Days, whereas in the *Julian* it has 366, as being *Biſſextile*. This Reformation is therefore called the *Gregorian* Account, or New-Stile, and is uſed by *Papiſts* in *Italy*, *Spain*, *France*, *Germany*, and by ſome *Proteſtants* abroad; but in

in *England* we have lately made a farther Correction, by throwing out 11 Days; which brings us much nearer the Truth than the *Gregorian Account*. This therefore ought to be called the BRITISH or AUGUSTINE Account, in Honour of our own Nation and King.

38. SINCE the Council of *Nice*, to the preſent Year 1758, there have elapſed upwards of 1433 Years, by which means the Equinox does in the Old-Stile, at this Time, fall on the 10th of *March* nearly, and the *Julian* Account is 11 Days later than our own. But even the Emendation, or New-Stile, (which we now uſe) is not ſufficient; for whereas by that four Days in 400 Years are rejected, a conſiderable Error is committed; for the odd 11′ 3″, by which the *Julian* Year exceeds the Truth, will not amount to more than three Days in 391 Years. If therefore at the End of every 391 Years we expunge three Days, the Equinox will very nearly always keep to the ſame Day of the Month.

39. IN Computations of Time, we find it neceſſary to fix upon ſome remarkable Tranſaction, or memorable Event, for the *Exordium* or Beginning of the Reckoning; theſe are called EPOCHA's or ÆRA's. Thus ſome compute from the *Creation of the World*: The ancient *Greeks* from the *Inſtitution of*

the

the Olympiads, beginning 776 Years before CHRIST: The *Romans* from the *Building of Rome*, about 750 Years before CHRIST. The *Chaldeans* and *Egyptians* uſe the *Æra of Nabonaſſar*, beginning *A. ante C.* 752. The *Turkiſh* Epocha is the *Hegira* or *Flight of Mahomet*, A. C. 622. The *Perſian* Æra is called *Yeſdegird*, A. C. 632. And that of the *Chriſtians* the *Birth of Chriſt*, ſince which Time we reckon 1771 Years.

40. BESIDES the Meaſure of Time by Common Years, we find it became neceſſary to introduce the Uſe of CYCLES (*i. e.* Circles) *of Years*; as the *Metonic Cycle*, the *Cycle of the Sun*, the *Cycle of Indiction*, and the *Julian Period* compounded of all the reſt. Of each of theſe I ſhall give the following ſhort Account.

41. THE CYCLE of the SUN ariſes hence: If the Number 365 be divided by 7, it will have a Remainder of 1, which ſhews the laſt Day of the Year is the ſame Day of the Week with the firſt. Now it was always cuſtomary to place againſt the ſeven Days in the Week, the ſeven firſt Letters of the Alphabet, A, B, C, D, E, F, G, and therefore, as they were continued through the Year, it is evident the ſame Letter muſt

ſtand againſt the firſt and laſt Day of the Year, *viz.* the Letter A.

42. HENCE, if the firſt of *January* will be a *Sunday*, the Letter A will point out all the *Sundays* in that Year; and ſince the 1ſt of *January* in the next Year is *Monday*, the firſt *Sunday* will be on the 7th, againſt which ſtands the Letter G, which therefore will be the *Sunday* Letter for all that Year. Again, the firſt Day of the following Year being *Tueſday*, the firſt *Sunday* will be on the 6th, againſt which ſtands the Letter F, which therefore indicates the *Sundays* through that Year, and ſo on; whence 'tis eaſy to obſerve, that the Letters which point out the *Sundays* in every Year will be in a retrograde Order, *viz.* A, G, F, E, *&c.* And becauſe theſe Letters ſhew the *Dies Domini*, or *Lord's-Days*, they have been called DOMINICAL LETTERS.

43. Now, if all the Years were common ones, the ſame Letter would not be the *Dominical*, or the *Sundays* would not be upon the ſame Days of the Week, till after a Cycle or Revolution of ſeven Years; and ſince every 4th Year has a Day extraordinary, this Day will interrupt the Succeſſion of the *Dominical Letters*, and cauſe that the

the ſame Days will not be ſhewn again by the ſame Letters after a *Cycle* of ſeven Years, but of $4 \times 7 = 28$ Years, which is called the *Cycle* of the *Sun*.

44. BECAUSE in every *Biſſextile* Year the 24th or 25th of *February* is reckoned twice, and both thoſe Days have the ſame Letter, it follows, that that Letter which ſhewed the *Sundays* before the 24th of *February* will not ſhew it afterwards, and therefore in every ſuch Year there will be two *Dominical Letters*. For Example, the Year 1744 was *Biſſextile*, *January* 1 *Sunday*, the *Dominical Letter* A; but the 24th of *February* being *Friday* had the Letter F, and alſo *Saturday* the 25th; therefore *Sunday* the 26th muſt have G, which for that reaſon was the *Sunday* Letter the remaining Part of the Year.

45. To find what Year of the *Cycle* the preſent or any Year of CHRIST is, add 9 to the given Year, (becauſe the firſt Year of CHRIST was the 9th of the *Cycle*) and divide by 28, the Remainder is the Year of the *Cycle* required. Example: The Year $1746 + 9 = 1755$, then 1755 divided by 28 leaves 19, the Year of the *Cycle* required, whoſe *Dominical Letter* is E, according to the following Table:

Cycle	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	1.
Dom. Let.	G F.	E.	D.	C.	B A.	G.	F.	E.	D C.	B.	A.	G.
Cycle	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.			
Dom. Let.	F E.	D.	C.	B.	A G.	F.	E.	D.	C B.			
Cycle	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.					
Dom. Let.	A.	G.	F.	E D.	C.	B.	A.					

46. THE METONIC CYCLE, (ſo called from the Inventor *Meton*) otherwiſe called the *Cycle of the Moon*, is a Period of nineteen Years, after which the *New* and *Full Moons* were ſuppoſed to return on the ſame Days of the Month, and Hours, as before; becauſe if the Solar and Lunar Year began together at any Time, theſe Years being to each other as 365 to 354, could not coincide again at their Beginning till after a certain Time, *viz.* 235 Lunations, which make 6939 D. 16 H. 31′ 45″, and in nineteen Solar Years are 6939 D. 18 H.; the Difference being only 1 H. 28′ 15″ ſhews the two Years will then begin again very nearly at the ſame Time, and the *New* and *Full Moons* come round again upon the ſame Days of the Month.

47. YET this Deficiency of an *Hour and half* will cauſe the *New* and *Full Moons* to happen ſo much ſooner each *Cycle* in the Heavens than by this Reckoning, and this in 304 Years amounts to a whole Day; and therefore, at this Time, they happen almoſt five Days ſooner than they ſhould do, by the Rule ſettled by the *Nicene* Council for finding the ſame by the *Golden Numbers*; the Nature and Uſe of which are to be underſtood as follows.

48. TAKING any Year for the Firſt of the *Cycle*, the Ancients obſerved all the Days on which the *New Moons* happened through the Year, and againſt each ſuch Day they placed the Number 1; in the 2d Year of the *Cycle* they did the like, and to each Day of the *New-Moon* annexed the Number 2. In like Manner to every *New Moon* Day in the 3d Year of the *Cycle* they ſubjoined the Number 3; and ſo on, thro' all the Years of the *Cycle*. This being done for one *Cycle*, the ſame Numbers were fitted to the Kalendar to ſhew the *New Moons* in each Year of any future *Cycle*; and, upon Account of this their excellent Uſe, they were in *Gold*, and were therefore called the *Golden Numbers* for thoſe Years reſpectively.

49. BUT becauſe theſe Numbers for the obſerved *New Moons* are not of laſting Uſe (as above ſhewn) the beſt way of diſpoſing theſe Numbers is by the *Mean Lunations*, as they may be found from Aſtronomical Tables for each Year of the *Cycle*, which are the ſame in every *Cycle*, and do not vary greatly from the true. But however advantageous this may be in civil Life, we are not to expect this Innovation ſhould take Place in the Liturgy of the Church of *England*, which ſtill continues to compute the Moons, as it does the Equinoxes, by the old erroneous Rule eſtabliſhed by the Council of *Nice*, which are called *Eccleſiaſtical New Moons*, in Contradiſtinction to the true ones in the Heavens.

50. BESIDES theſe, there was another Period called the CYCLE OF INDICTION, conſiſting of 15 Years; it was ſo called becauſe the Numbers of this Cycle *indicated* the Time of *Eaſter*. But as this *Cycle* has no Connection with the Motions of the Heavenly Bodies, I ſhall ſay no more of it here, but refer the Reader for a farther Account of this and other Matters purely *Chronological*, to the Authors who have wrote on *Chronology*, or, if they pleaſe, to an Epitome

of

of that Science in my *Philological Library of Literary Arts and Sciences.*

51. THE DIONYSIAN PERIOD is one that is made by multiplying together the *Cycles* of the *Sun* and *Moon*, and therefore conſiſts of 532 Years, for $28 \times 19 = 532$. After the Completion of this Period, not only the New and Full Moons return to the ſame Days of the Month, but alſo the Days of the Month return to the ſame Days of the Week; and therefore the *Dominical Letters* and the *Moveable Feaſts* all return again in the ſame Order. Hence this *Cycle* was called the GREAT PASCHAL CYCLE.

52. THE JULIAN PERIOD is the laſt I ſhall mention, and the largeſt of all, conſiſting of 7980 Years, being compoſed of the *Cycles of the Sun, Moon, and Indiction*; thus $28 \times 19 \times 15 = 7980$. The Beginning of this Period was 764 Years before the Creation, and is not yet compleated; and therefore comprehends all other *Periods*, *Cycles* and *Epochas*, and the Times of all memorable Actions and Hiſtories. It had its Name from its Inventor *Julius Scaliger*, who has eternized himſelf thereby.

53. I CAN'T conclude this Eſſay without laying before the Reader the *Aſtronomical*

Principles of CHRONOLOGY, which Sir *Iſaac Newton* makes uſe of for ſettling the Grand EPOCHA of the *Argonautic Expedition*, and which he makes the Baſis of his Chronology. He obſerves, that *Eudoxus*, in his Deſcription of the Sphere of the Ancients, placed the Solſtices and Equinoxes in the Middle of the Conſtellations *Aries*, *Cancer*, *Chelæ*, and *Capricorn*: And alſo that this Sphere or Globe was firſt made by *Muſæus*, and the *Aſteriſms* delineated upon it by *Chiron*, two of the *Argonauts*.

54. Now it has been ſhewn, that by the Preceſſion of the Equinoxes the Stars go back 50″ *per Annum*. And ſince at the End of the Year 1689, the *Equinoctial Colure* paſſing through the middle Point, between the firſt and laſt Star of *Aries*, did then cut the Ecliptic in ♈ 6° 44″, it is evident, that the Equinox had then gone back 36° 44′; therefore, as 50″ is to one Year, ſo is 36° 44′ to 2645 Years, which is the Time ſince the *Argonautic* Expedition to the Beginning of the Year 1690; that is, 955 Years before CHRIST is the Æra of the *Argonautic Expedition*.

55. BUT our great Author is more particular and ſubtile in this Affair. He finds the Mean Place of the *Colure of the Equi-*

noxes

noxes and Solſtices, by conſidering the ſeveral Stars they paſs'd through among the other Conſtellations, as follows, according to *Eudoxus*.

56. IN the Back of *Aries* is a Star of the 6th Magnitude, marked γ by *Bayer*; in the End of the Year 1689, its Longitude was ♉ 9° 38′ 45″; and the Equinoctial Colure paſſing through, according to *Eudoxus*, cuts the Ecliptic in ♉ 6° 58′ 57″.

57. IN the Head of *Cetus* are two Stars of the 4th Magnitude, called ν and ξ by *Bayer*. *Eudoxus*'s Colure paſſing in the Middle between them, cuts the Ecliptic in ♉ 6° 58′ 51″, at the End of the Year 1689.

58. IN the extreme Flexure of *Eridanus* there was formerly a Star of the 4th Magnitude (of late it is referred to the Breaſt of *Cetus*). It is the only Star in *Eridanus*, through which this Colure can paſs; its Longitude was at the End of the Year 1689 ♈ 25° 22′ 10″, and the Colure of the Equinox paſſing through it cuts the Ecliptic in ♉ 7° 12′ 40″.

59. IN the Head of *Perſeus*, rightly delineated, is a Star of the 4th Magnitude, called τ by *Bayer*; its Longitude was ♉ 23° 25′ 30″ at the End of the Year 1689; and the

the Colure of the Equinox, paſſing through it cuts the Ecliptic in ♈ 6° 18′ 57″.

60. IN the Right Hand of *Perſeus*, rightly delineated, is a Star of the 4th Magnitude, whoſe Longitude at the End of the Year 1689 was ♈ 24° 25′ 27″, and the Equinoctial Colure paſſing through it cuts the Ecliptic in ♈ 4° 56′ 40″.

61. Now the Sum of all theſe Places of the Colure, *viz.*

	°	′	″
♈	6	58	57
♈	6	58	51
♈	7	12	40
♈	6	18	57
♈	4	56	40
Is =	1	2	26	05
The 5th Part of which is =	♈	6	29	13

which is therefore the Mean Place, in which the Colure in the End of the Year 1689 did cut the Ecliptic.

62. AFTER a like Manner he determines the Mean Place of the *Solſtitial Summer Colure* to be ♋ 6° 28′ 47″, which as it is juſt 90 Degrees from the other, ſhews it to be rightly deduced. The *Equinoxes* having then departed 1° 6° 29′ from the Cardinal Points of *Chiron*, ſhews that 2628 Years have elapſed ſince that Time, which is more

more correct than the former Number (*Article* 55.) though leſs by only ſeventeen Years.

63. By ſome other Methods, of a like Nature, he alſo ſhews the *Æra of the Argonauts* ought to be placed in that Age of the World; and having fixed this moſt ancient *Epocha*, he makes his Computation with Reference thereto in the future Part of his Book.

64. And thus our great Author has, with his uſual Sagacity, ſo conducted his Deſign, as to make his Chronology ſuit with the *Courſe of Nature*, with the *Principles of Aſtronomy*, with *Sacred Hiſtory*, with *Herodotus*, the Father of Profane Hiſtory, and with itſelf. And though many have thought fit to cavil, and find great fault with his Chronology, yet, how little regard ought to be paid to them may from hence appear, that Sir *Iſaac Newton* was undoubtedly equal to any Man *in all the common Qualifications of a Chronologiſt*, and *vaſtly ſuperior to all* in thoſe which were eſſential. Gentlemen ſhould have the Modeſty not to criticiſe on the greateſt Man that ever lived, till they have convinced the World, at leaſt, *that they underſtand him*.

LECTURE XII.

The Uſe of the GLOBES.

Of the GLOBES *in general. The* CIRCLES *of the* SPHERE *deſcribed. The* POSITIONS *of the* SPHERE. *The* SOLUTION *of* PROBLEMS *on the* CELESTIAL GLOBE. *The* TERRESTRIAL GLOBE *deſcribed.* PROBLEMS *on the ſame. Of the* CONSTELLATIONS *of the* Northern *and* Southern HEMISPHERE. Flamſteed's CATALOGUE *of the* STARS. *Of the* DISTANCE *and other* Phænomena *of the* STARS. *A* Calculation *of the ſurpriſing* VELOCITY *of* LIGHT. *Of the* ABBERRATION *of* Light, *and the* Teleſcopic MOTION *of the Stars by* Dr. BRADLEY. *The* PRINCIPLES *of* GNOMICS, *or* Art *of* DIALING *demonſtrated, by a* DIALING-SPHERE. Aſtronomical Doctrine *of the* SPHERE, *and Method of calculating* SPHERICAL TRIANGLES. *The* HARVEST-MOON *explain'd. How to find a* MERIDIAN LINE. *The* FIGURE *and* DIMENSIONS *of the Earth determined by* actual

actual Menſuration *of a* DEGREE *under the* ARCTIC CIRCLE *and at* PARIS. *A new* CALCULATION *on that Head. Of the* ORTHOGRAPHICAL PROJECTION. *Of the* STEREOGRAPHICAL PROJECTION. *The* Globular Projection. *Of* MERCATOR's CHART, *and a new Method of Conſtructing the Table of* MERIDIONAL *Parts by Fluxions. The Nature of the* RHUMB-LINE *inveſtigated, and applied in* Sailing. *A new* MAP *of the* WORLD *on the* Globular Projection. *A* MAP *of the* Country *in* Lapland *where the Arch of the* Meridian *was meaſured by the* French *King's* Mathematicians.

IN this Lecture I ſhall explain the *Uſe of both the Globes*, by giving a ſuccinct Account of the Nature and Deſign of each, and a Solution of the *Principal Problems* that are uſually performed thereby.

EACH Globe is ſuſpended in a General Meridian, and moveable (within an Horizon) about its Axis, in the ſame Manner as the *Armillary Sphere* of the Orrery; and the Circles of that Sphere, already deſcribed, are laid on the correſponding Parts of the Surface of each Globe; and are therefore ſuppoſed to be known. Plate LXVI. Fig. 4.

THE

THE Surface of the CELESTIAL GLOBE is a Repreſentation of the Concave Surface of the *Starry Firmament*, there being depicted all the Stars of the firſt and Second Magnitude, and the moſt noted of all the reſt that are viſible. So that by this Globe we may ſhew the *Face of the Heavens* for any required Time, by Day or Night, throughout the Year, in general; or in regard to any particular Body, as the *Sun*, *Moon*, *Planet*, or *Fixed Star*.

THE Stars are all diſpoſed into Conſtellations, under the Forms of various Animals, whoſe Names and Figures are printed on the Paper which covers the Globe; which were invented by the ancient Aſtronomers and Poets, and are ſtill retained for the ſake of Diſtinction and better Arrangement of thoſe Luminaries, which would be otherwiſe too confuſed and promiſcuous for eaſy Conception, and a regular Method of treating on them (CXLV).

(CXLV) 1. The Surface of this CELESTIAL GLOBE may be eſteemed a juſt and adequate Repreſentation of the concave Expanſe of the Heavens, notwithſtanding its Convexity; for 'tis eaſy to conceive the Eye placed in the Centre of the Globe, and viewing the Stars on its Surface, ſuppoſing it made of Glaſs, as ſome of them are; and alſo, that if Holes were made in the Centre of each Star, the Eye in the Centre of the Globe, properly

In order to understand the following Problems, it will be necessary to premise the

properly posited, would view through each of those Holes the very Stars in the Heavens represented by them.

2. Because it would be impossible to have any distinct or regular Ideas or Notions of the Stars in respect of their Number, Magnitude, Order, Distances, &c. without first reducing them to proper Classes, and arranging them in certain Forms, which therefore are call'd ASTERISMS or CONSTELLATIONS; this was done in the early Ages of the World by the first Observers of the Heavens, and those who made Spheres or Delineations; of whom Sir *Isaac Newton* reckons *Chiron* the Centaur the first who formed the Stars into Constellations, about the Time of the *Argonautic Expedition*, or soon after; and that the several Forms or *Asterisms* were, as it were, so many symbolical Histories, or Memorials of Persons and Things remarkable in that Affair. Thus *Aries*, the Ram, is commemorated for his *Golden Fleece*, and was made the first of the Signs, being the Ensign of the Ship in which *Phryxus* fled to *Colchis*. *Taurus*, the Bull, with Brazen Hoofs, tamed by *Jason*; *Gemini*, the Twins, *viz. Castor* and *Pollux*, two of the *Argonauts*; the Ship *Argo* and *Hydrus* the Dragon, *&c.* which all manifestly relate to the Affairs of that Expedition, which happened about forty or fifty Years after *Solomon*'s Death.

3. By this means they could make Catalogues of the Stars, record their Places in the Heavens, and call them all by their Names. *Hipparchus* is said to be the first who framed a Catalogue of the Stars, which was afterwards copied by *Ptolomy*, and adjusted to his own Time, *A. D.* 140. The Number in this was 1026. After this *Ulug Beigh* made a Catalogue of 1022, reduced to the Year 1437. *Tycho Brahe* rectified the Places of 1000 Stars; but his Catalogue, published by *Longomontanus*, contains but 777, for the Year 1600. *Bayer* published a Catalogue of 1160. *Hevelius* composed a

Catalogue

the following Definitions in relation thereto, *viz.*

I. THE DECLINATION of the Sun and Stars is their Diſtance from the *Equinoctial* in Degrees of the general Meridian, towards either Pole, *North* or *South*.

II. RIGHT ASCENSION is that Degree of the Equinoctial reckon'd from the Beginning of *Aries*, which comes to the Meridian with the Sun or Star.

III. OBLIQUE ASCENSION is that Degree of the Equinoctial which comes to the Horizon when the Sun or Star is riſing: And *Oblique Deſcenſion* is that Point which comes to the Horizon on the Weſt Part, when the Sun or Star is deſcending or ſetting in an oblique Sphere.

IV. ASCENSIONAL DIFFERENCE is the Difference between the *Right* and *Oblique Aſcenſion*.

V. THE

Catalogue of 1888 Stars adjuſted, to the Year 1660. But the largeſt and moſt compleat of all is the *Britiſh* Catalogue by Mr. *Flamſteed*, containing about 3000, of which ſcarce 1000 can be ſeen by the naked Eye in the cleareſt and darkeſt Night. They are rectified for the Year 1689. They are diſtinguiſhed into ſeven Degrees of Magnitude, in their proper Conſtellations; whoſe Names, Latitudes, and Longitudes here follow, together with the Number of Stars in each, and of each particular Magnitude, as I have taken them from the third Volume of the *Hiſtoria Cœleſtis*. Note, the firſt Latitude is South, the other North, in the Twelve Signs, unleſs marked to the contrary.

4. The

V. THE LONGITUDE of the Sun or Star is an Arch of the Ecliptic, between the first Point of *Aries*, and that Point of the Ecliptic to which the Luminary is referred by the Meridian passing through it; and is therefore reckoned in Signs and Degrees of the Ecliptic.

4. The *Constellations* of the TWELVE SIGNS.

Names.	*Long.* ° ′	*Lat.* ° ′	*Num.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Aries.	♈ 26 48 ♉ 21 06	00 01 21 31	65	0	1	2	5	6	28	23
Taurus.	♉ 16 49 ♊ 26 36	18 27 09 46	135	1	1	4	13	21	44	51
Gemini.	♊ 14 11 ♋ 12 33	10 07 13 18	79	1	2	4	6	12	32	22
Cancer.	♋ 22 49 ♌ 12 19	10 19 14 59	71	0	0	0	6	7	39	19
Leo.	♌ 10 57 20 42	07 39 17 38	95	2	2	6	15	10	50	10
Virgo.	♍ 00 10 ♎ 29 23	00 24 21 24	89	1	0	5	10	19	45	9
Libra.	♍ 04 11 28 35	18 34 *N.* 11 27 *S.*	49	1	2	7	5	11	21	2
Scorpio.	♍ 26 48 ♐ 20 46	12 46 *N.* 13 57 *S.*	51	0	2	2	12	5	25	5
Sagittarius.	♐ 22 55 ♑ 26 29	10 59 07 31	50	0	1	5	6	11	23	4
Capricornus.	♑ 27 26 ♒ 21 29	08 53 07 27	51	0	0	3	3	9	34	2
Aquarius.	♒ 07 24 ♓ 21 57	21 04 23 02	99	1	0	4	7	31	50	6
Pisces.	♓ 11 06 ♈ 26 47	23 06 09 05	109	0	0	1	6	27	54	21

VI. THE LATITUDE of a Star is its Distance from the Ecliptic towards the North or South Pole.

VII. AMPLITUDE is the Distance at which the Sun or Stars rises or sets, from the East or West Point of the Horizon, towards the North or South.

5. The *Constellations* of the NORTHERN HEMISPHERE.

Andromeda.	♈ 3 29	15 55	66	0	3	2	12	13	34	Sept.
	♉ 18 4	49 53								
Aquila cum Antinoo.	♑ 29 46	10 5	70	1	0	10	7	15	32	5
	♒ 8 6	43 27								
Anser cum Vulpe	♑ 20 20	37 39	34	0	0	0	4	12	18	0
	♓ 1 14	47 46								
Auriga.	♊ 11 22	2 29	68	1	2	1	10	18	31	5
	♋ 12 30	32 13								
Bootes.	♍ 22 34	25 15	55	1	0	8	10	11	17	8
	♎ 00 54	60 33								
Cassiopeia.	♈ 21 6	38 18	56	0	0	5	7	9	30	5
	♊ 8 4	59 53								
Camelopardus.	♊ 10 40	29 24	58	0	0	0	4	18	27	9
	♋ 10 39	45 43								
Cepheus.	♈ 00 39	59 32	35	0	0	3	7	8	14	3
	♉ 26 37	75 27								
Coma Berenices.	♍ 16 53	15 14	40	0	0	0	8	14	14	4
	♎ 4 48	33 56								
Corona Septen.	♎ 00 58	44 21	21	0	1	0	6	8	6	0
	20 54	56 25								
Cygnus.	♑ 20 55	37 39	107	0	1	6	21	31	48	0
	♓ 23 17	74 10								
Delphinus.	♒ 8 49	23 00	18	0	0	6	0	2	9	1
	16 31	33 44								
Draco.	*Per totam Circumf.*	57 13	49	0	1	7	8	13	19	1
		87 25								
Equuleus.	♒ 14 12	20 9	10	0	0	0	4	1	5	0
	21 7	25 13								

VIII. Azi-

VIII. AZIMUTH is the Distance between the North Point of the Horizon, and the Point where the Vertical Circle, passing through the Body of the Sun or Star, cuts the Horizon.

IX. THE ALTITUDE of the Sun or Star is its Height above the Horizon, measured

Hercules.	♎ 28 7	25 15	95	0	0	11	15	31	38	0
	♐ 28 29	69 33								
Leo Minor.	♋ 29 8	9 21	53	0	0	1	5	11	33	3
	♍ 4 4	30 50								
Lacerta.	♓ 19 49	43 12	16	0	0	0	3	6	7	0
	6 27	55 34								
Lynx.	♊ 28 24	17 3	44	0	0	0	3	12	21	8
	♌ 9 45	10 39								
Lyra.	♑ 3 35	54 28	21	1	0	2	2	5	11	0
	26 14	66 13								
Perseus. C. M.	♉ 8 8	11 17	67	0	2	5	11	15	28	6
	♊ 10 48	41 13								
Pegasus.	♒ 23 37	9 13	93	0	4	3	10	13	58	5
	♈ 7 17	44 24								
Sagitta.	♑ 20 00	35 35	23	0	0	0	4	1	18	0
	♒ 8 37	43 15								
Serpens Ophiuchi.	♏ 7 38	7 59	59	0	1	7	6	3	32	10
	♑ 11 31	42 28								
Scutum.	♑ 0 23	4 59	7	0	0	0	2	4	1	0
	10 8	18 17								
Serpentarius, or Opiuchus.	♏ 27 58	6 54	69	0	1	7	15	13	26	7
	♑ 1 29	37 18								
Triangulum.	♉ 0 5	13 55	15	0	0	0	3	1	7	4
	13 15	20 54								
Ursa Major.	♊ 10 41	17 6	215	0	6	5	5	58	91	20
	♎ 6 58	61 3								
Ursa Minor.	♊ 21 43	65 42	24	0	0	4	3	5	6	6
	♌ 17 19	77 50								
Canes Venatici.	♍ 0 5	52 52	25	0	1	0	2	5	14	3
	25 43	33 56								

in the Degrees of the *Quadrant of Altitude*, or moveable *Azimuth Circle*.

X. A Star is said to rise or set *Cosmically*, when it rises or sets when the Sun rises.

XI. A Star rises *Acronically*, if it rises when the Sun sets.

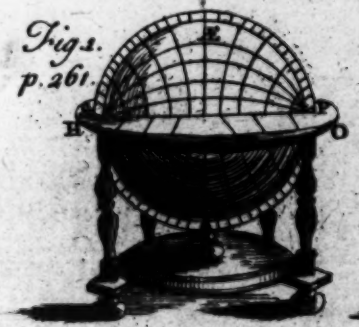
6. *Constellations in the* SOUTHERN HEMISPHERE.

Ara cum Thuribulo.	♐ 15 6 27 18	23 5 37 15	9	0	0	1	6	2	0	0
Argo, or Navis	♋ 24 57 ♌ 14 2	22 24 10 14	25	0	0	4	6	6	9	0
Apus.	♐ 9 45 21 24	44 32 62 4	11	0	0	0	4	3	4	0
Canis major.	♊ 3 7 ♋ 25 12	34 44 59 14	32	1	7	1	4	11	5	3
Canis minor.	♋ 16 48 ♌ 0 49	9 45 23 47	15	1	0	1	0	3	9	1
Cetus.	♓ 18 36 ♉ 14 30	2 42 34 14	78	0	2	6	13	9	44	4
Centaurus, cum Lupo.	♎ 25 42 ♏ 28 30	11 28 21 59	13	0	1	0	5	6	1	0
Camelliontis.	♏ 26 30 ♐ 3 39	63 35 75 24	10	0	0	0	0	9	1	0
Columba Noahi.	♊ 14 54 ♋ 6 46	55 42 60 41	10	0	2	0	1	1	1	0
Corona Austr.	♑ 1 18 10 14	12 28 22 36	12	0	0	0	1	3	8	0
Corvus.	♎ 6 26 13 3	10 21 21 44	10	0	0	3	2	2	3	0
Crater.	♍ 19 26 ♎ 3 58	11 18 22 42	11	0	0	0	8	2	2	0
Eridanus.	♈ 16 38 ♊ 11 15	18 26 54 33	68	0	0	12	15	20	20	1
Grus.	♒ 14 54 18 2	39 43 41 55	23	0	0	0	2	1	0	0
Hydrus.	♑ 26 59 ♈ 3 37	64 10 78 5	10	0	0	4	2	3	1	0

XII. A

A Direct Sphere

Fig. 1. p. 261.



A Parallel Sphere

Fig. 2. p. 263.

An Oblique Sphere

Fig. 3. p. 265.

Fig. 4. p. 269.

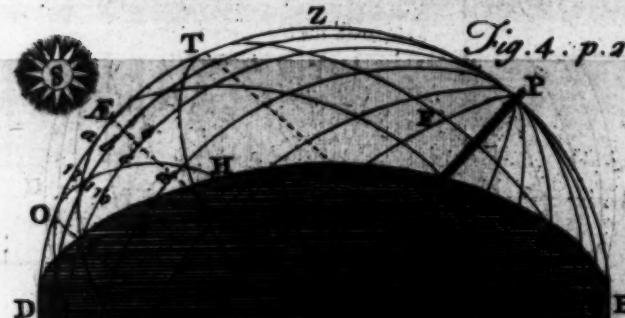
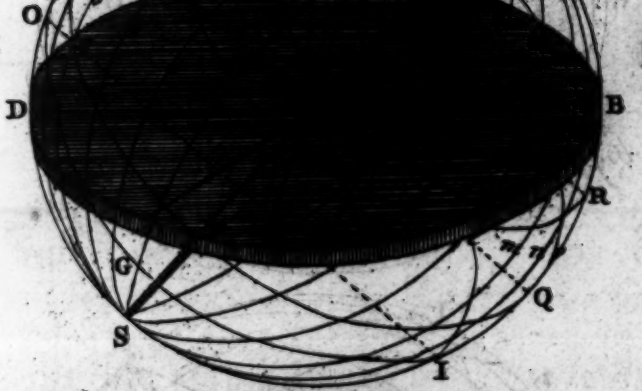
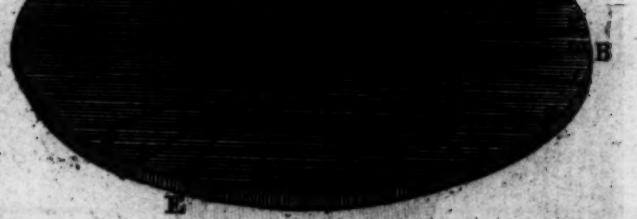


Fig. 5. p. 271.





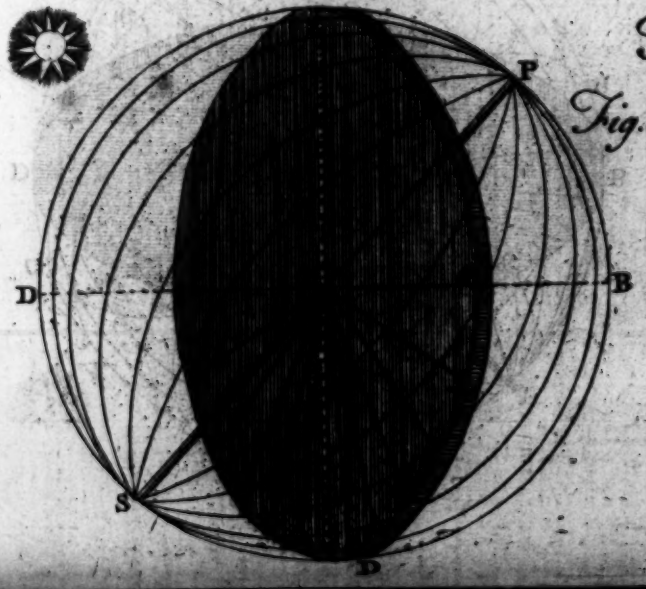
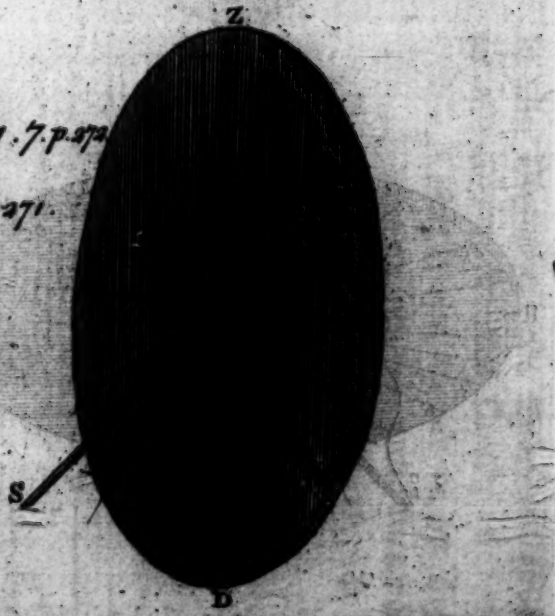


Fig. 7. p. 272

Fig. 6. p. 271.



XII. A Star rises *Heliacally*, when it emerges out of the Sun-beams, and is seen in the Morning before Sun-rising: And it sets *Heliacally*, when it is so near the Sun that it cannot be seen.

XIII. A *Right Sphere* is that whose Poles are in the Horizon and the Equinoctial, Pl.LXV. Fig. 1, 2, 3.

Lepus.	♊ 6 44	34 45	19	0	0	3	7	3	6	0
	28 9	45 46								
Musca.	♏ 16 20	55 11	4	0	0	0	2	2	0	0
	22 22	58 47								
Monoscéros.	♊ 29 34	3 13	19	0	0	0	10	7	2	9
	♌ 10 50	31 11								
Orion.	♊ 7 32	3 11	80	2	4	4	25	20	25	0
	♍ 15 11	34 4								
Pavo.	♐ 24 7	36 11	14	0	1	3	5	4	1	0
	♑ 24 41	50 49								
Phœnix.	♒ 29 47	31 39	13	0	1	5	6	1	0	0
	♐ 24 14	55 5								
Piscis Volans.	♎ 11 19	67 52	8	0	0	0	0	7	1	0
	♏ 14 11	82 35								
Robur Carolinæ	♎ 3 34	51 2	12	0	1	2	7	2	0	0
	♏ 7 6	72 12								
Sextans.	♌ 19 59	1 21	41	0	0	0	1	7	32	1
	♍ 13 5	19 43								
Toucan.	♒ 5 16	45 17	9	0	0	4	2	3	0	0
	22 43	59 46								
Triangulum.	♐ 5 35	41 32	5	0	1	2	0	2	0	0
	17 2	48 1								
Xiphias.	♐ 7 36	70 12	6	0	0	1	2	1	2	0
	♉ 18 32	88 14								

	Num	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. In the *Zodiac*,	943	7	11	43	94	169	445	174
In *Northern Hemisphere*,	1511	4	23	93	227	356	695	113
In *Southern Hemisphere*,	547	4	20	56	136	145	176	10
Sum of all the STARS,	3001	15	54	192	457	670	1316	297

and all its Parallels cut the Horizon at Right Angles.

8. The Use of such a Catalogue of Stars is very great, for from hence we learn, (1.) If any *new Stars* at any Time appear, which have never been observed before. (2.) If any Star, which now appears, shall in Time to come disappear. (3.) If the *new Star* which shall appear be the same with a Star that has appeared formerly; and therefore, (4.) If the Stars have any periodical Times of Apparition. Hence (5.) The Means or Method of predicting the Appearing or Disappearing of Stars. (6.) By a Catalogue of the Stars we compare their respective Places, Situations, and Distances with Ease. (7.) By this Means we also compare and determine the true Places and Motions of the heavenly Bodies in general, and of the Sun, Moon, Planets, and Comets in particular, with many other useful Purposes it serves besides.

9. Now it is actually Fact, that some new Stars appear, and that others disappear: yea, that they change their apparent Magnitude, and disappear by Degrees. *Hipparchus* the first of Men observed a new Star, (120 Years before *Christ*) which occasioned his making a Catalogue of the Stars. Another is said to have appear'd *A. D.* 130; another *A. D.* 389; one exceeding bright in the 9th Century, and another in the Year 1264.

10. But the first *new Star*, of which we have any good Account, is that in the Chair of *Cassiopeia*, first observed by *Cornelius Gemma* on the 9th of *November* 1572, and by *Tycho Brahe* on the 11th. Sir *Isaac Newton* says it equalled *Venus* in Brightness at its first Appearance, and gradually declined in its Lustre, till it totally disappeared in the *March* following. This Star is supposed to be the same that appeared in the Years 945 and 1264, having its Period about 310 or 320 Years.

11. In *Aug.* 13, 1596, *D. Fabricius* observed another *new Star* in the *Neck of the Whale*; and through the 17th Century this Star was observed to appear and disappear

XIV. A *Parallel Sphere* is that whose Poles co-incide with the Poles of the Horizon,

appear periodically, its Period being equal to 333 Days. The Phænomena of this and the like Stars are supposed to be owing to the Spots on their Surface, which sometimes increase, and sometimes decrease, in the Manner as we have observed they do on the Surface of our Sun.

12. For that the Stars are really *Suns*, and have each a System of Planets, *&c.* about them, like ours, can be no doubt to those who understand the Rules of Reasoning rightly, as I have before observed, *Annot.* CXXXI. And therefore, as they revolve about their Axis, those Spots may cause a great Alteration of Lustre, and sometimes wholly obscure them for a Time. But it is no Wonder if Bodies at such a Distance should have Appearances produced by Causes quite unknown to us. See more on this Head in Dr. *Long's Astronomy*.

13. As to the Distance of the Fixed Stars, we had but small Hopes of any Estimation of it, till Dr. *Bradley* began his Observations on them with an Instrument so very exact, as that he is of Opinion, if the Parallax of a Star amounted to but one single Second, he must have observed it; and therefore that such a Star must be above 400000 times farther from us than the Sun.

14. For if S represent the Sun, T the Earth, A T B its Orbit, and R a Star at such a distance S R or T R, that the Semidiameter of the Orbit S T shall subtend an Angle T R S = 30″, or half a Second, then we find the Distance S R by this Analogy: Plate LXIII. Fig. 4.

As the Tangent of the Angle T R S = 30″	=	4.371914
Is to Radius	90° =	10.000000
So is the Sun's Distance	S T = 1 =	0.000000
To the Distance of the Star S R = 424700	=	5.628086

15. But the Distance of the Sun S T = 20000 Semidiameters of the Earth (see *Annot.* CXXXIV.); and

rizon, or *Zenith* and *Nadir*; and the Equinoctial with the Horizon; and all the Parallels parallel thereto.

XV. AN

ſuppoſing SR = (TR =) 400000 ST, then is the Diſtance of the Star from the Earth TR = 400000 × 20000 = 8000000000 Semidiameters of the Earth, or 8000000000 × 4000 = 32000000000000 Miles of *Engliſh* Meaſure. Hence it appears, that though the Velocity of Sound be ſo very great as at the Rate of 1142 Feet *per* Second, or 7000000 Miles *per Annum*, yet it would take up 4571430 Years to paſs from the neareſt Star to us. A Cannon-Ball would take up twice that Time to paſs from us to the Star; (ſee *Annot.* XXV. 4.) yea Light itſelf, with the inconceivable Velocity of 10000000 Miles *per* Minute, takes up more than 6 Years in coming from the Star to us. Therefore how immenſely great muſt thoſe Luminaries be, which appear ſo bright, and of ſuch different Magnitudes, at ſuch immenſe Diſtances!

16. The different apparent Magnitudes of the Stars are owing to their different Diſtances from us. Had we Teleſcopic Eyes, we ſhould ſee many more. *Seventy Stars*, and more, have been diſcovered in the *Pleiads* (commonly called the *Seven Stars*;) and all that Tract of the Heavens called the *Milky Way* (or *Galaxy*) is well known to be owing to the Refulgence of a prodigious Multitude of Stars diſſeminated through thoſe Parts of the Univerſe, though at ſo great a Diſtance as to be inviſible to the naked Eye; yet are they diſcernible in great Numbers through a Teleſcope, and more in Proportion as the Inſtrument is better.

17. Hence likewiſe we account for that particular Phænomenon we call a *nebulous Star*, or cloudy faintiſh bright Spots that appear like Stars in an indirect View; for in order to this you have no more to do than only to direct a good Teleſcope to any one of them, and you will be agreeably ſurpriſed with a View of a great Multitude of very ſmall Stars, which were the Cauſe of the *luminous Spot* to the naked Eye.

18. To

XV. AN *Oblique Sphere* is that, one of whoſe Poles is above the Horizon, and the

18. To the very ſmall apparent Magnitude of the Stars we owe their conſtant *Twinkling*; for being but lucid Points, every opake Corpuſcle or Atom floating in the Air will be big enough to cover and eclipſe them, when they get in the right Line between the Star and the Eye; which Alternations of momentary Occultations and Apparitions make the Twinkling of the Stars we now ſpeak of.

19. I ſhall here give a fuller Account of the ſmall elliptic apparent Motion of each Star about its true Place, which I have already begun in a former *Annotation*. And in order to underſtand the Force of the Argument, the following Repreſentations are neceſſary, *viz.* Let S be the Sun, A B C D the Earth's Orbit; and from S ſuppoſe a Perpendicular erected, as S P, paſſing through a Star at P. Now if the Spectator were at S, he would view the Star in the ſame Perpendicular, and in its true Place P, projected in the Point *p* in the viſible Surface of the Heavens. But if the Spectator be carried about the Sun in the Circle A B C D, whoſe Diameter is ſenſible at the Diſtance P, or ſubtends a ſenſible Angle A P C, then in the Poſition A he will ſee the *Phænomenon* P in the Right Line A P *a*, projected in the Point *a*. For the ſame Reaſon in the Points B, C, D, the Star will appear in *b*, *c*, *d*; ſo that it will ſeem to have deſcribed the little Circle *a b c d*. Plate LXIII. Fig. 5, 6, 7.

20. If the Diſtance of the Star S P be ſo great, that the Diameter of the Earth ſubtends no ſenſible Angle, but appears as a Point, then will alſo the ſmall Circle *a b c d* become inſenſible; and all the Lines A P, B P, *&c.* may be eſteemed perpendicular to the Plane of the Ecliptic, and be directed to the ſame Point in the Heavens with the Perpendicular S P, as to Senſe. So that in this Caſe the Star P would ever appear in the ſame Point *p*, if Light were propagated in an Inſtant.

21. But if in this very Caſe, in which the Star is ſo remote, Light be propagated in Time or with a certain Velocity, then as the Earth deſcribes its Orbit a Spectator

the other below it; and the Equinoctial and

tator will see the Star in an oblique Direction, and not in the Perpendicular, as we have formerly shewn: That is, if G F be a Tangent to the Earth's Orbit in B, and B E perpendicular to the Plane of the Ecliptic in the Point B, then while the Earth moves through the indefinitely small Arch G B, a Star at E will appear to move from E to *e*, or to be in *e* when the Earth arrives at B,

22. Now since the Distance S B is but a Point with respect to the great Distance S P of the Star, it follows, that we may refer the Spectator from the several Points A, B, C, D, to the central Point S, for observing the *Phænomena* of the Star at P, which will not be altered thereby. Therefore if *c a* be parallel to A C, and you make the Angle P S *a* equal to the Angle E B *e*, 'tis plain the Star P must appear in *a*, in the Direction S *a*. Also when the Earth is at D, the Star will be seen in the oblique Direction S *c* at *c*, the Spectator being referred to S.

23. For the like Reason, *viz.* because *b d* is parallel or alike situated in respect of D B, and to the Tangents in D and B, therefore the Star at P will appear in *d* and *b* when the Earth is at C and A; and so during the Space of one Year the Star P will appear to describe a small Circle *a d c b*, supposing the Star in the Zenith E of the Spectator; but if the Star be at any Distance from the Zenith, the said small Circle will become an Ellipse, as in *Fig.* 7.

24. These small elliptic Motions of the Stars occasioned their Declinations to vary, and also their Distances from the Poles of the World, and that by the Space of 20″ $\frac{1}{4}$ on one Side and on the other. Now this could not happen on any account of Refraction, because the same thing was as well observed of Stars near the Zenith, where there is no Refraction, as elsewhere situated. Nor could it result from any *Nutation* of the Earth's Axis; for that would have made the equal Distances of the Stars on opposite Sides of the Pole unequal, which never happened.

25. Neither

and its Parallels obliquely cutting the ſame (CXLVI).

THE

25. Neither can this be a *Parallactic Motion* of the Stars; for then while the Earth deſcribed the Half of its Orbit ABC, the Star would deſcribe the Semicircle *a b c*; whereas it is found by Obſervation, that the Star deſcribes the ſaid Semicircle *a b c* while the Earth deſcribes its Semi-Orbit B C D. (See *Art.* 22, 23.) Therefore it muſt ariſe ſolely from *the Velocity of Light bearing a ſenſible Proportion to the annual Motion of the Earth.*

(CXLVI) 1. The three Poſitions of the Sphere here deſcribed are repreſented in ſo many Figures; the firſt of which is the *Direct* or *Right Sphere*, which is proper to thoſe People only who live under the Equinoctial Circle Æ Q, becauſe to them the Poles of the World P and S will both be in the Horizon H O. Pl. LXV. Fig. 1.

2. The ſecond Figure repreſents the *Parallel Sphere*, where the Axis of the Earth P S is perpendicular to the Horizon, or the Poles P, S, are in the *Zenith* and *Nadir*. This Poſition of the Sphere is peculiar to the Parts of the Earth under each Pole; whoſe Inhabitants, if any there were, would perceive no circular Motion of the Sun, Moon, or Planets, nor any Motion of the Stars at all. But this muſt be underſtood of a Perſon ſtanding preciſely on the Ends of the Earth's Axis, which are the only Points on the Earth's Surface which have no real Motion, and conſequently which can produce no apparent Motion. Fig. 2.

3. The *Oblique Sphere* is repreſented in the third Figure. In this the Axis of the World P S makes an Angle P E Q with the Horizon H O, of a greater or leſſer Number of Degrees according to the Latitude of the Place. Hence it appears, that all the Inhabitants of the Earth have ſuch a Poſition of the Sphere, except thoſe under the *Equinoctial* and the *Poles*. Fig. 3.

4. The Arch P O meaſures the *Altitude* or Height of the Pole, or what is commonly called the *Pole's Elevation*; and this Arch P O is ever equal to the Latitude of the Place Æ Z, as will eaſily appear thus: It is Æ Z + Z P

THE *Problems* on the *Celeſtial Globe* are the following.

PROB.

$+ ZP = (ÆP =$ Quadrant $=) ZP + PO = ZO$; if therefore from the two equal Quadrants $ÆP = ZO$ you ſubduct the common Part or Arch ZP, the remaining Arches $ÆZ = PO$; which was to be ſhewn.

5. Hence appears alſo the Reaſon of the Method of rectifying the Sphere or Globe for any given Place Z, or Latitude $ÆZ$, *viz.* becauſe if the Pole P be elevated ſo high above the Horizon as the Place is diſtant from the Equator, the ſaid Place will then be the higheſt Point of the Globe, and conſequently that to which alone all the *Phænomena* of the Heavens and the Earth, in ſuch a Poſition of the Globe, can agree.

6. Hence alſo we obſerve, that the Complement of the Latitude ZP is equal to the Elevation of the Equator $ÆH$ above the Plane of the Horizon. For $ÆZ + ZP = (ÆP = ZH =) ZÆ + ÆH$; therefore ſubduct the common Part $ÆZ$, and there remains on each Side $ZP = ÆH$; which was to be ſhewn. Whence the Angle $ZEP = ÆEH$.

7. Any great Circle of the Sphere paſſing through the Zenith and Nadir Z and N, as ZEN, ZAN, are called *Azimuths* or *Vertical Circles*; of which that which paſſes through the Eaſt and Weſt Points of the Horizon, as ZEN, is called the *Prime Vertical*. The Arch of the Horizon AE is the *Amplitude* of a Phænomenon emerging above the Horizon at the Point A; this is called the *Ortive Amplitude*, becauſe it is *riſing*; as on the Weſtern Side it is called the *Occaſive Amplitude*, becauſe it is there *ſetting*. The Arch AB meaſured by a Quadrant of Altitude ZA is the *Altitude* of any Celeſtial Body at B, above the Horizon.

8. As I judge this a proper Place, I ſhall here explain the *Philoſophical Principles* of GNOMONICS, or the *Art of* DIALLING. In order to this we are to conſider, that as the Time which paſſes between any Meridian's leaving the Sun and returning to it again is divided into 24 Hours, ſo if we conceive a Sphere to be conſtructed with

PROB. I. *To rectify the Globe.*

ELEVATE the Pole to the Latitude of the Place, and every thing as directed under

with 24 of these Meridians, the Sun will orderly come upon or be in one of them at the Beginning of every Hour. Such a Sphere may be represented by the Figure P D S B, where the several Meridians are represented by P 1 S, P 2 S, P 3 S, and so on to twice 12, or 24 in all. Pl. LXV. Fig. 4.

9. Since these Meridians divide the Equinoctial into 24 equal Parts, each Part will contain just 15°, because $15 \times 24 = 360° =$ the whole Circle; and since all the Meridians pass through the Poles of the World, the Planes of those Meridians all intersect each other in one common Line P S, which is the Axis of the Sphere, therefore the said Axis P S is in the Plane of each of the 12 Meridians.

10. Suppose Z to be the Zenith of any Place, as *London*, and D W B E the Plane of the Horizon fixed within the Sphere, constructed with the said 12 *Meridians* or *Hour-Circles*, 1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, 4, 4, *&c.* then will the Axis of the Sphere P S pass through the Centre of the Plane at N, so that one Half N P will be above the Plane, and the other Half N S below it.

11. Suppose now this *Dialling-Sphere* to be suspended by the Point Z, and moved about so as to have the Points D and B exactly in the *South* and *North* Points of the Horizon, and E and W in the *East* and *West* Points; then will the Sphere have a Situation every way similar to that of the Earth and Heavens with respect to the given Place *London*, and the Axis of the Sphere to that of the Earth.

12. Therefore the Sun shining on such a Sphere will be attended with all the same Incidents, and produce all the same Effects, as would happen if the said Sphere were at the Centre of the Earth, or the Centre N of the Sphere coincided with the Centre of the Earth; because the Distance betwixt the Surface and Center of the Earth is insensible at the Distance of the Sun.

der PROB. II. of the *Terreſtrial Globe*, which ſee.

PROB.

13. Now 'tis evident, as the Sun revolves about ſuch a Sphere, it will every Hour be upon one Half or other of the 12 Hour-Circles, *viz.* from Midnight to Noon it will be on thoſe Parts of the Circles which are in the *Eaſtern Hemiſphere*, and from Noon to Midnight it will paſs over all thoſe in the *Weſtern*. It is alſo farther evident, that while the Sun is in the Eaſtern Hemiſphere it will be firſt below and then above the Plane of the Horizon, and *vice verſa* on the other Side.

14. Again: When the Sun is upon any one of theſe Hour-Circles, by ſhining upon the Axis it cauſes it to caſt a Shadow on the contrary Side, on the Plane of the Horizon, on the nether or upper Surface, as it is below or above the ſaid Plane. This Shadow of the Axis will be preciſely in the Line in which the Plane of the Hour-Circle would interſect the Plane of the Horizon: If therefore Lines were drawn through the Centre N, joining the Points on each Side the Plane where the Hour-Circles touch it, as 4 N 4, 5 N 5, 6 N 6, *&c.* the Shadow of the Axis will fall on thoſe Lines at the Beginning of each reſpective Hour, and thereby indicate the Hour-Circle the Sun is in for every Hour of the Day.

15. Theſe Lines are therefore properly called *Hour-Lines*; and amongſt the reſt, that which repreſents the Hour of 12 at Noon is N B, half the Meridian-Line D B; whence it appears, that the Hour-Lines N 1, N 2, N 3, *&c.* which ſerve for the Afternoon, lie on the Eaſt Side of the Plane, and are numbered from the North to the Eaſt; and on the contrary.

16. It alſo appears, that as the Sun's Altitude above the Plane is greater or leſs, the Number of Hour-Circles the Sun will poſſeſs above the Horizontal Plane will be alſo greater or leſs. Thus when the Sun is at S in the Equinoctial, its *diurnal Path* for that Day being the Equinoctial Circle itſelf Æ E Q W, 'tis plain, ſince the Arch Æ E = E Q, the Sun will apply to ſix Hour-Circles

PROB. II. *To find the* SUN'S PLACE *in the Ecliptic.*

FIND

Circles below the Horizon, and to ſix above it, in each Half of the Day; and conſequently, that on that Day the Shadow will occupy but 12 of the Hour-Lines on each Surface of the Plane, beginning and ending at 6.

17. But when the Sun is in the Tropic of *Cancer*, its diurnal Path for that Day being the Tropic itſelf T C R F; 'tis manifeſt the Sun in the Forenoon aſcends above the Plane in paſſing between the Hour-Circles of 3 and 4 in the Morning, and deſcends below it in the Afternoon between the Hours of 8 and 9: Therefore on the Summer-Tropic the Shadow will paſs over 16 of thoſe Hour-Lines. And *vice verſa*, when the Sun is in the Winter-Tropic at O, its Path being then O G I H, it riſes above the Plane between 8 and 9, and leaves it between 3 and 4.

18. From what has been ſaid 'tis evident, that if the Circles be ſuppoſed removed, and only the horizontal Plane remain, with the Half of the Axis N P above it, in the ſame Poſition as before, then ſhould we have conſtituted an HORIZONTAL DIAL, every way the ſame with thoſe in common Uſe, as repreſented in the next Figure, with only the Addition of a Subſtyle P O, to render the Style N P very firm. Pl. LXV. Fig. 5.

19. Hence appears the Reaſon why the *Gnomon* or Style N P in thoſe Dials is always directed to the North Pole, and always contains ſuch an Angle P N O with the Hour of 12 N B as is equal to the Latitude of the Place: Laſtly, the Reaſon why the Number of Hour-Lines on theſe Dials exceeds not 16, and are all drawn from 6 to 12 and 6 again on the Northern Part, the reſt on the Southern; and why the Hour-Line of 6 lies directly *Eaſt* and *Weſt*, as that of 12 does *North* and *South*.

20. If a Plane be fixed with the ſame Sphere in a Vertical Poſition, or perpendicular to the Horizon, and coinciding with the Plane of the *Prime Vertical*, i. e. facing full South and North; then will the Axis P S Fig. 6.

FIND the Day of the Month in the Calendar on the Horizon, and right againſt it is the Degree of the Ecliptic which the Sun is in for that Day.

PROB.

ſtill paſs through the Center of the Plane N, and the lower Semiaxis N S will by its Shadow mark out the Hour-Lines on the Southern Surface, and the upper Semiaxis N P will do the ſame on the Northern. Theſe Hour-Lines are determined in the ſame Manner as thoſe on the Horizontal Dial; and it is plain, the Sun cannot come on the Southern Face of this Plane before Six in the Morning, nor ſhine on it after Six in the Evening.

21. Alſo it is evident, that all the Hours before Six in the Morning, and after Six at Night, will be ſhewn on the Northern Face or Side of this Plane, for the Time of the Sun's being above the Horizon in any Place. Hence the Reaſon of a *Direct South and North Vertical Dial* eaſily appears; the latter of which is here repreſented apart from the Sphere, with its Style N S, Subſtyle, and Hour-Lines: And the ſame may be conceived for a *North Erect Dial*.

Pl. LXV. Fig. 7.

22. The *Gnomon* N S contains an Angle S N D = Z N P with the Meridian or Hour-Line of 12, *viz.* Z D, which is exactly the Complement of the former P N B to 90 Degrees; or the Elevation of the *Gnomon* is in theſe equal to the Complement of the Latitude of the Place: And what has been ſaid about the Reaſon of the Hour-Lines is the ſame for the Half-Hours, Quarters, *&c.* Likewiſe if the *Rationale* of a *Direct South Dial* be underſtood, nothing can be difficult to underſtand of a Dial which does not face the South or North directly, but declines therefrom any Number of Degrees towards the Eaſt or Weſt. But they who would know more of the Mathematical Structure and Calculations for all Sorts of Dials, may have Recourſe to the Second Volume of my *Mathematical* INSTITUTES.

PROB. III. *To find the Sun's* DECLINATION:

RECTIFY the Globe, bring the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic to the Meridian, and that Degree which it cuts in the Meridian is the Declination required.

PROB. IV. *To find the Sun's* RIGHT ASCENSION:

BRING the Sun's Place to the Meridian, and the Degree in which the Meridian cuts the Equinoctial is the Right Aſcenſion required.

PROB. V. *To find the Sun's* AMPLITUDE:

BRING the Sun's Place to the Horizon, and the Arch of the Horizon between it and the Eaſt or Weſt Point is the Amplitude, North or South.

PROB. VI. *To find the Sun's* ALTITUDE *for any given Day and Hour:*

BRING the Sun's Place to the Meridian; ſet the Hour-Index to the upper XII. then turn the Globe till the Index points to the given Hour, where let it ſtand; then ſcrewing the Quadrant of Altitude in the *Zenith*, lay it over the Sun's Place, and the Arch contained between it and the Horizon will give the Degrees of Altitude required.

PROB. VII. *To find the Sun's* AZIMUTH *for any Hour of the Day:*

EVERY thing being done as in the laſt Problem, the Arch of the Horizon contained between the North Point and that where the Quadrant of Altitude cuts it, is the *Azimuth* Eaſt or Weſt as required.

PROB. VIII. *To find the Time when the Sun riſes or ſets:*

FIND the Sun's Place for the given Day; bring it to the Meridian, and ſet the Hour-Hand to XII. then turn the Globe till the Sun's Place touches the Eaſt Part of the Horizon, the Index will ſhew the Hour of its Riſing: After that turn the Globe to the Weſt Part of the Horizon, and the Index will ſhew the Time of its Setting for the given Day.

PROB. IX. *To find the Length of any given Day or Night:*

THIS is eaſily known by taking the Number of Hours between the Riſing and Setting of the Sun for the Length of the Day; and the Reſidue to 24, for the Length of the Night.

PROB. X. *To find the Hour of the Day, having the Sun's Altitude given:*

BRING the Sun's Place to the Meridian, and ſet the Hour-Hand to XII.; then turn

the Globe in ſuch Manner, that the Sun's Place may move along by the Quadrant of Altitude, (fixed in the *Zenith*) till it touches the Degree of the given Altitude; where ſtop it, and the Index will ſhew on the *Horary Circle* the Hour required.

PROB. XI. *To find the Place of the* MOON *or any* PLANET, *for any given Day:*

TAKE *Parker*'s or *Weaver*'s *Ephemeris*, and againſt the given Day of the Month you will find the Degree and Minute of the Sign which the Moon or Planet poſſeſſes at *Noon*, under the Title of *Geocentric Motions*. The Degree thus found being marked in the Ecliptic on the Globe by a ſmall Patch or otherwiſe, you may then proceed to find the *Declination*, *Right Aſcenſion*, *Latitude*, *Longitude*, *Altitude*, *Azimuth*, *Riſing*, *Southing*, *Setting*, *&c.* in the ſame Manner as has been ſhewn for the Sun.

PROB. XII. *To explain the Phænomena of the* HARVEST-MOON.

IN order to this we need only conſider, that when the Sun is in the Beginning of *Aries*, the Full Moon on that Day muſt be in the Beginning of *Libra*: And ſince when the Sun ſets, or Moon riſes, on that Day, thoſe Equinoctial Points will be in the Horizon, and the Ecliptic will then be

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leaſt of all inclined thereto, the Part or Arch which the Moon deſcribes in one Day, *viz.* 13 Degrees, will take up about an Hour and a Quarter aſcending above the Horizon; and therefore ſo long will be the Time after Sun-ſet, the next Night, before the Moon will riſe. But at the oppoſite Time of the Year, when the Sun is in the *Autumnal*, and Full Moon in the *Vernal Equinox*, the Ecliptic will, when the Sun is ſetting, have the greateſt Inclination to the Horizon; and therefore 13 Degrees will in this Caſe ſoon aſcend, *viz.* in about a Quarter of an Hour; and ſo long after Sun-ſet will the Moon riſe the next Day after the Full: Whence, at this Time of the Year, there is much more Moon-Light than in the Spring; and hence this Autumnal Full Moon came to be called the *Harveſt Moon*, the *Hunter's* or *Shepherd's Moon*: All which will clearly be ſhewn on the Globe.

PROB. XIII. *To repreſent the Face of the Starry Firmament for any given Hour of the Night.*

RECTIFY the Globe; and turn it about, till the Index points to the given Hour; then will all the upper Hemiſphere of the Globe repreſent the viſible Half of the Hea-

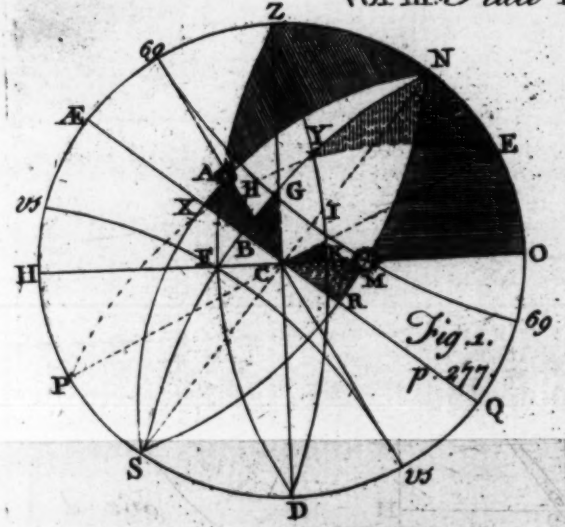


Fig. 1. p. 277

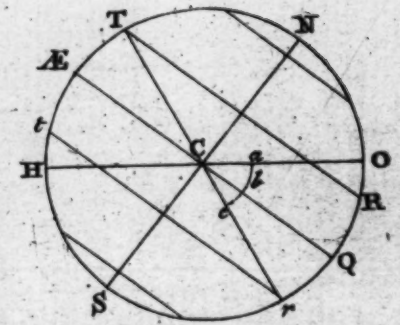


Fig. 2. p. 279.

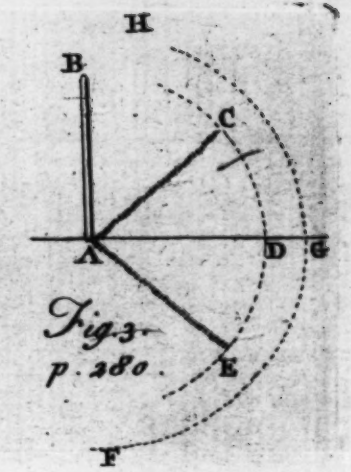
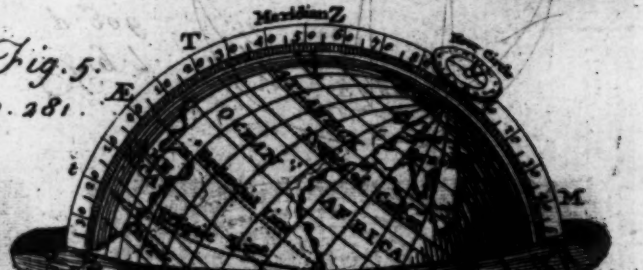


Fig. 3. p. 280.

Fig. 4. p. 281.

Fig. 5. p. 281.



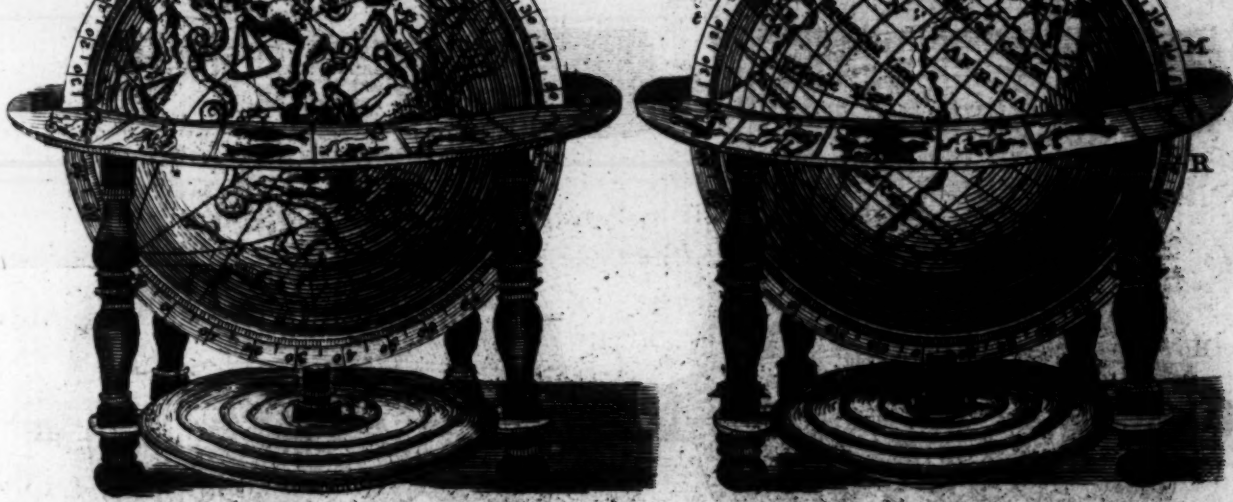


Fig. 6.
p. 298.

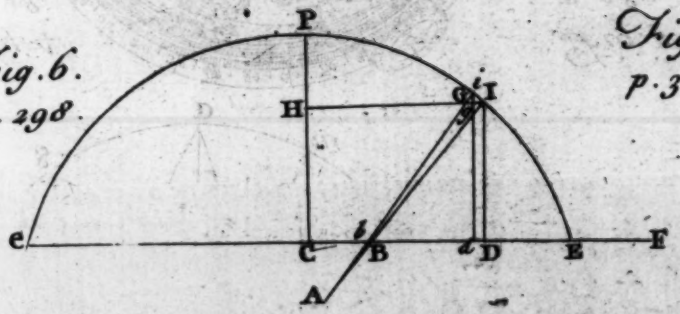
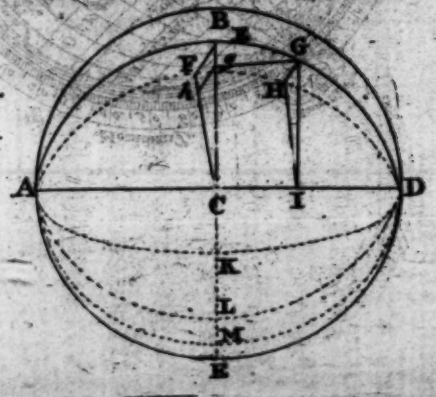


Fig. 7.
p. 306.



vens, and all the Stars on the Globe will be in ſuch Situations as exactly correſpond to thoſe in the Heavens; which may therefore be eaſily found, as will be ſhewn.

PROB. XIV. *To find the Hour when any known Star will riſe, or come upon the Meridian:*

RECTIFY the Globe, and ſet the Index to XII.; then turn the Globe till the Star comes to the Horizon or Meridian, and the Index will ſhew the Hour required.

PROB. XV. *To find at what Time of the Year any given Star will be on the Meridian at* XII *at Night.*

BRING the Star to the Meridian, and obſerve what Degree of the Ecliptic is on the North Meridian under the Horizon; then find in the Calendar on the Horizon the Day of the Year againſt that Degree, and it will be the Day required. (CXLVII).

THESE

(CXLVII) 1. I ſhall here repreſent the Caſes of theſe Aſtronomical Problems, as they are performable by the Circles of the Celeſtial Globe, or by the *Stereographical Projection* of the Sphere *in Plano*. Thus;

Let ÆNQS be the General Meridian. Plate LXVI. Fig. 1.

N S the Axis of the Sphere.

Æ Q the Equinoctial Line.

H O the Horizon of *London*.

♋ C ♑ the Ecliptic, or Sun's Path.

Z D the *Prime Vertical*, or *Azimuth*.

THESE are the chief *Problems* on the *Celeſtial Globe*: We now proceed to thoſe on

E P the Axis of the Ecliptic.
N A S an Hour-Circle or Meridian.
Z A D an Azimuth Circle.
E Y P a Circle of Longitude.
♋ I ♋ the Tropic of *Cancer*.
♑ ♑ the Tropic of *Capricorn*.

2. By Means of theſe Circles various Spherical Triangles are formed for Calculation. Thus let A be the Place of the Sun in the Ecliptic; then in the Right-angled Triangle A X C we have

C A the Sun's *Place*, or Longitude from the Equinox C.
A X the Sun's *Declination* North.
C X the Sun's *Right-Aſcenſion*.
A C X the Angle of Obliquity of the *Ecliptic*.

3. And ſuppoſing the Sun riſing in the Horizon at M on the Day of the Summer Tropic, and N M S an Hour-Circle; then there is formed the Right-angled Triangle N O M, in which we have

N O = Æ Z = the *Latitude* of the Place Z.
M O the *Amplitude* from the North.
N M the Complement of the Sun's *Declination* R M.
O N M the Angle of the Hour from Midnight.
O M N the Angle of the Sun's *Poſition*.

4. On the ſame Tropical Day the Sun is at I at Six o'Clock, becauſe the Hour-Circle of Six is projected upon the Axis N C S; therefore in the Right-angled Triangle I C K we have

I K the Sun's *Altitude* at Six.
C K the Azimuth from the Eaſt at Six.
C I the *Declination* North.
I C K the *Latitude* of the Place.

5. Again; when the Sun on the ſame Day comes to the *Prime Vertical* Z C D, his Place when due *Eaſt* and *Weſt* is at G; therefore in the Right-angled Triangle G B C we have

G B the Sun's *Declination* North.
G C the Sun's *Altitude* when Eaſt or Weſt.

on the *Terreſtrial*; but ſhall firſt premiſe the following Definitions relating thereto.

I. THE

B C the *Hour* of his being due Eaſt or Weſt.
B C G the *Latitude* of the Place.

6. Suppoſe the Sun in the Horizon at M once more; then in the Right-angled Triangle M C R we have
C M the *Amplitude* from Eaſt to Weſt.
M R the *Declination* North.
C R the *Aſcenſional Difference.*
R C M the *Co-Latitude* of the Place.
R M C the Angle of *Poſition.*

7. In the oblique Triangle A Z N we have
Z N the *Co-Latitude* of the Place Z.
A N the *Co-Declination.*
A Z the Complement of the *Altitude* A F.
A N Z the *Hour* from Noon equal to Æ X.
A Z N the Azimuth from the North.

And the ſame may be done for any Star at A, or any other Place.

8. Laſtly, let Y be any Star, then in the oblique Triangle Y N E we have
Y E the *Co-Latitude* of the Star.
Y N the *Co-Declination* of the Star.
N E = Æ ♋ = the *Obliquity* of the Ecliptic.
N E Y the Star's *Longitude* in the Ecliptic.
E N Y the *Hour* from Midnight.

9. For the Canons and Method of Calculation I ſhall refer the Reader to the ſecond Volume of my *Young Trigonometer's Guide*, what I have done being as much as the Nature of the Subject at preſent requires: And thoſe who have no Globes may ſolve moſt of theſe (and many other) Problems by my *Synopſis Scientiæ Cœleſtis*, at a very ſmall Expence, and with the greateſt Exactneſs.

10. The Reaſon of the *Phænomenon* we call the HARVEST-MOON is extremely eaſy by the Globe, and may alſo be repreſented in a Diagram thus. Let H O be the Horizon, Æ Q the Equinoctial; then will T *r* be the Ecliptic, when the Beginning of *Aries* is in the Weſtern Plate LXVI. Fig. 2.

I. THE LATITUDE of any Place is its Diſtance from the Equator towards either Pole;

Weſtern Horizon; but when the other Equinox is there, *t* R will be the Poſition of the Ecliptic. On the *Vernal Equinox* if a Full Moon happens, it will be at C in the Eaſtern Horizon at Riſing; in one Day the Moon will deſcribe the Arch C *c*; wherefore the following Night ſo much Time will intervene between Six o'Clock and the Hour of the Moon's riſing, as is ſpent in the Motion of the Globe while the Arch C *c* is aſcending above the Horizon.

11. Whereas at the oppoſite Time of the Year, *viz.* at the *Autumnal Equinox*, if a Full-Moon happen, then the next Night the Moon's diurnal Arch to be elevated above the Horizon is C *b* = C *c*; but ſince the Poſition of C *b* is ſo much nearer to the Horizon than C *c*, it will aſcend much ſooner above it, *viz.* in about one fifth Part of that Time, and ſometimes in leſs, becauſe the Moon's Orbit ſometimes makes a greater Angle with the Horizon than *t* C H = *a* C *c*, and ſometimes a leſs Angle than *t* C H = *a* C *b*. But for more on this Subject ſee my *Philoſophical Grammar*.

12. Becauſe in many Caſes it is abſolutely neceſſary to have a MERIDIAN-LINE at hand, I ſhall here ſhew the beſt Way of making or drawing ſuch a one on any Plane where the Sun can ſhine, thus. Let a ſtrait Braſs-Pin or Steel Wire A B be fixed upright in the Point A, on which Point as a Centre you had before deſcribed ſeveral concentric Circles, as C D E, F G H, *&c.* Now to make the Pin A B exactly perpendicular, let three Points be choſen in the outmoſt Circle, as F, G, H, in which place one Foot of the Compaſſes, and extend the other to the Top of the Pin B. The Pin is to be bent one way and the other, till the ſaid Point of the Compaſſes will fall nicely on the Middle of the Top B from each Point of the Circle F, G, H, and then is the Pin well adjuſted.

Plate LXVI. Fig. 3.

13. Then obſerving in the Forenoon where the Top of the Shadow A C touches any one Circle, there make a Mark;

Pole; and is reckoned in Degrees of the General Meridian, beginning at the Equator.

II. LONGITUDE is the Diſtance between the Meridian of any Place, and the firſt or ſtanding Meridian, reckoned in the Degrees of the Equator towards the Eaſt or Weſt.

III. A CLIMATE is a Space of the Earth's Surface, parallel to the Equator, where the Length of the Day is *half an Hour* longer in the Parallel which bounds it on the North, than in that which terminates it on the South.

IV. A ZONE is alſo a Diviſion of the Earth's Surface parallel to the Equator, in regard of the different Degrees of *Heat and Cold*, which we have deſcribed in the preceding Lecture.

a Mark, as at C; and then in the Afternoon make a Mark at E, where the Shadow's Point is in the ſame Circle again. Then biſect the Arch C E in the Point D, through which and the central Point A draw the Line A D, and it will be the *Meridian Line* required. If this be done in ſeveral Circles, the Operation will be the more exact and certain.

14. I have here added the Figures of the Celeſtial and Terreſtrial Globe, with all the principal Circles and their Names, as they are rectified for the Latitude of *London*. *Note*, Theſe Globes I now make from the late Mr. *Senex*'s Plates, of 3, 9, 12, 17, and 27 Inches Diameter, and with many new Additions, Corrections, and Improvements. Plate LXVI. Fig. 4, 5.

V. THE

V. THE ANTOECI are thoſe Inhabitants of the Earth who live under the ſame Meridian, but on oppoſite Parallels, and are therefore equally diſtant from the Equator. Their Noon and Midnight are at the ſame Time; the Days of one are equal to the Nights of the other; and their Seaſons of the Year are contrary.

VI. THE PERIOECI are thoſe People who live under the ſame Parallel, but oppoſite Meridians. The ſame Pole is elevated and depreſs'd to both; are equally diſtant from the Equator, and on the ſame Side; when Noon to one, it is Midnight to the other; the Length of Days to one is the Complement of Night to the other, and the contrary, and the Seaſons of the Year are the ſame to both, at the ſame Time.

VII. THE ANTIPODES are thoſe who live *Feet to Feet*, or under *oppoſite Parallels and Meridians*. They are equally diſtant from the Equator on different Sides; have the contrary Poles equally elevated; the Noon of one is Midnight to the other; the longeſt Day or Night to one is ſhorteſt to the other; and the Seaſons of the Year are contrary, *&c.*

VIII. ALSO the Inhabitants of the Torrid Zone are called AMPHISCII, becauſe their *Shadows fall on both Sides* of them.

IX.

IX. THOSE of the Frigid Zone are called PERISCII, becauſe their *Shadows fall all around* them.

X. AND the Inhabitants of the Temperate Zones are called HETEROSCII, becauſe they caſt *their Shadows only one way.*

XI. A CONTINENT is the largeſt Diviſion or Space of Land, comprehending divers Countries and Kingdoms, not ſeparated by Water.

XII. AN ISLAND is any ſmall Tract of Land ſurrounded by Water.

XIII. A PENINSULA is a Part of Land encompaſſed with Water all around, except on one Part, which is called

XIV. AN ISTHMUS, being that narrow Neck of Land which joins it to the Continent.

XV. A PROMONTORY is a mountainous Part of Land ſtanding far out in the Sea; whoſe Fore-part is call'd a *Cape* or *Head-Land.*

XVI. THE OCEAN is the largeſt Collection of Waters, which lies between, and environs the Continents.

XVII. THE SEA is a ſmaller Part of the aqueous Surface of the Earth, interceding the Iſlands, Promontories, *&c.*

XVIII. A GULF is a Part of the Sea every where environed with Land, except on one ſmall Part call'd

XIX. A STRAIT, which is that narrow Paſſage joining it to the adjacent Sea.

XX. A LAKE is any large Quantity of ſtagnant Water entirely ſurrounded by Land.

THE other Parts of Land or Water need no Explanation.

I SHALL now proceed to the Solution of the moſt uſeful *Problems* on the *Terreſtrial Globe*, firſt premiſing that *the Latitude of a Place is equal to the Elevation of the Pole at that Place*; for if the Arch of the Meridian between the Place and the Pole be added to the Latitude of the Place, it makes 90 Degrees; alſo if it be added to the Pole's Elevation, or Arch between the Pole and Horizon, the Sum is 90 Degrees: Whence the Propoſition is evident.

PROB. I. *To find the Latitude of any Place:*

BRING the given Place to the Brazen Meridian, and obſerve what Degree it is under, for that is the Latitude required.

PROB. II. *To rectify the Globe for any Place:*

RAISE

RAISE the Pole ſo high above the Horizon, as is equal to the Latitude of the Place; ſcrew the Quadrant of Altitude in the *Zenith*; find the Sun's Place, and bring it to the Meridian; ſet the Hour-Hand to the upper XII.; and place the Globe North and South by a Needle; then is it a juſt Repreſentation of the Globe of the Earth, in regard of that Place, for the given Day at Noon.

PROB. III. *To find the Longitude of a given Place:*

BRING the Place to the Brazen Meridian, and obſerve the Degree of the Equator under the ſame, for that expreſſes the Longitude required.

PROB. IV. *To find any Place by the Latitude and Longitude given:*

BRING the given Degree of Longitude to the Meridian, and under the given Degree of Latitude you will ſee the Place required.

PROB. V. *To find all thoſe Places which have the ſame Latitude and Longitude with thoſe of any given Place:*

BRING the given Place to the Meridian; then all thoſe Places which lie under the Meridian have the ſame Longitude: Again, turn the Globe round on its Axis; then all thoſe

thoſe Places, which paſs under the ſame Degree of the Meridian with any given Place, have the ſame Latitude with it.

PROB. VI. *To find all thoſe Places where it is Noon at any given Hour of the Day in any Place:*

BRING the given Place to the Meridian; ſet the Index to the given Hour; then turn the Globe, till the ſaid Index points to the upper XII.; and obſerve what Places lie under the Braſs Meridian, for to them it is Noon at that Time.

PROB. VII. *When it is Noon at any one Place, to find what Hour it is at any other given Place:*

BRING the firſt given Place to the Meridian, and ſet the Index to the upper XII.; then turn the Globe till the other given Place comes to the Meridian, and the Index will point to the Hour required.

PROB. VIII. *For any given Hour of the Day in the Place where you are, to find the Hour of the Day in any other Place.*

BRING the Place where you are to the Meridian, ſet the Index to the given Hour; then turn the Globe about, and when the other Place comes to the Meridian, the Index

dex will ſhew the Hour of the Day there, as required.

PROB. IX. *To find the Diſtance between any two Places, on the Globe in* Engliſh *Miles:*

BRING one Place to the Meridian, over which fix the Quadrant of Altitude; and then laying it over the other Place, count the Number of Degrees thereon contained between them; which Number multiply by 69 and a half, (the Number of Miles in one Degree) and the Product is the Number of *Engliſh* Miles required.

PROB. X. *To find how any one Place bears from another:*

BRING one Place to the Braſs Meridian, and lay the Quadrant of Altitude over the other; and it will ſhew on the Horizon the Point of the Compaſs on which the latter bears from the former.

PROB. XI. *To find thoſe Places to which the Sun is vertical in the Torrid Zone, for any given Day:*

FIND the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic for the given Time, and bring it to the Meridian, and obſerve what Degree thereof it cuts; then turn the Globe about, and all thoſe Places which paſs under that Degree of the Meridian are thoſe required.

PROB. XII. *To find what Day of the Year the Sun will be vertical to any given Place in the Torrid Zone.*

BRING the given Place to the Meridian, and mark the Degree exactly over it; then turn the Globe round, and obſerve the two Points of the Ecliptic which paſs under that Degree of the Meridian: Laſtly, ſee on the Wooden Horizon, on what Days of the Year the Sun is in thoſe Points of the Ecliptic; for thoſe are the Days required.

PROB. XIII. *To find thoſe Places in the North Frigid Zone, where the Sun begins to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting, on any given Day between the* 10*th of* March *and the* 10*th of* June.

FIND the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic for the given Day; bring it to the general Meridian, and obſerve the Degrees of Declination; then all thoſe Places which are the ſame Number of Degrees diſtant from the Pole, are the Places required to be found.

PROB. XIV. *To find on what Day the Sun begins to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting, on any given Place in the North Frigid Zone, and how long:*

RECTIFY the Globe to the Latitude of the Place; and, turning it about, obſerve what Point of the Ecliptic between *Aries* and

and *Cancer*, and alſo between *Cancer* and *Libra*, co-incides with the North Point of the Horizon; then find, by the Calendar on the Horizon, what Days the Sun will enter thoſe Degrees of the Ecliptic, and they will ſatisfy the Problem.

PROB. XV. *To find the Place over which the Sun is vertical, on any given Day and Hour:*

FIND the Sun's Place, and bring it to the Meridian, and mark the Degree of Declination for the given Hour; then find thoſe Places which have the Sun in the Meridian at that Moment; and among them, that which paſſes under the Degree of Declination is the Place deſired.

PROB. XVI. *To find, for any given Day and Hour, thoſe Places wherein the Sun is then riſing, or ſetting, or on the Meridian; alſo thoſe Places which are enlightened, and thoſe which are not.*

FIND the Place to which the Sun is vertical at the given Time, and bring the ſame to the Meridian, and elevate the Pole to the Latitude of the Place; then all thoſe Places which are in the Weſtern Semicircle of the Horizon have the Sun *riſing*, and thoſe in the Eaſtern Semicircle ſee it *ſetting*; and to thoſe under the Meridian it is *Noon*.

Laſtly, all Places above the Horizon are enlightened, and all below it are in Darkneſs or Night.

PROB. XVII. *The Day and Hour of a Solar or Lunar Eclipſe being given, to find all thoſe Places in which the ſame will be viſible:*

FIND the Place to which the Sun is vertical at the given Inſtant, and elevate the Globe to the Latitude of the Place; then in moſt of thoſe Places above the Horizon will the Sun be viſible during his Eclipſe; and all thoſe Places below the Horizon will ſee the Moon paſs through the Shadow of the Earth in her Eclipſe.

PROB. XVIII. *The Length of a Degree being given, to find the Number of Miles in a great Circle of the Earth, and thence the Diameter of the Earth:*

ADMIT that one Degree contains 69½ *Engliſh* Statute Miles; then multiply 360 (the Number of Degrees in a great Circle) by 69½, and the Product will be 25020, the Miles which meaſure the Circumference of the Earth. If this Number be divided by 3.1416, the Quotient will be 7963 $\frac{44}{1000}$ Miles, for the Diameter of the Earth.

PROB. XIX. *The Diameter of the Earth being known, to find the Surface in Square Miles, and its Solidity in Cubic Miles:*

ADMIT

ADMIT the Diameter be 7964 Miles; then multiply the Square of the Diameter by 3.1416, and the Product will be 199250205 very near, which are the Square Miles in the Surface of the Earth. Again, multiply the Cube of the Diameter by 0.5236, and the Product 264466789170 will be the Number of Cubic Miles in the whole Globe of the Earth.

PROB. XX. *To expreſs the Velocity of the diurnal Motion of the Earth:*

SINCE a Place in the Equator deſcribes a Circle of 25020 Miles in 24 Hours, 'tis evident the Velocity with which it moves is at the Rate of $1042\frac{1}{2}$ in one Hour, or $17\frac{3}{10}$ Miles *per* Minute. The Velocity in any Parallel of Latitude decreaſes in the Proportion of the *Co-Sine of Latitude to the Radius.* Thus, for the Latitude of *London*, 51 Deg. 30 Min. ſay,

As Radius — —	10.000000
To the Co-ſine of Lat. 51 Deg. 30 M.	9.794149
So is the Velocity in the Equator, $17\frac{3}{10}$ M.	2.232046
To the Velocity of the City of *London* $10\frac{5}{10}$ M.	2.032195

That is, the City of *London* moves about the Axis of the Earth at the Rate of 10$\frac{2}{10}$ Miles every Minute of Time. But this is far ſhort of the Velocity of the annual Motion about the Sun; for that is at the Rate of 60000 Miles *per* Hour, or about 1000 Miles each Minute, ſuppoſing the Diameter of the annual Orbit to be 82 Millions of of Miles (CXLVIII).

THERE

(CXLVIII) 1. I might here ſhew how the ſeveral Spherical Triangles are formed for the Solution of moſt of theſe *Geographical Problems*, as I did before for the *Aſtronomical* ones; but as the Method is the ſame, I need not again repeat it. However, to facilitate the Ideas of the above Definitions, *&c.* I have added (as before mentioned) a Print of each Globe. The *Rationale* of the ſeveral Methods of ſolving Problems of this Sort cannot be well ſhewn without an Eye upon the Globe, and a Praxis *cum vivâ voce* with a Demonſtrator.

2. I ſhall here ſubjoin a few Things relating to the Magnitude of the Earth, and the Dimenſions of the ſeveral Parts, together with the Manner of acquiring the Knowledge thereof. Firſt then, the moſt natural, eaſy, and certain Method of doing this is, by firſt *meaſuring the Length of a Degree of Latitude* in the Meridian of any Place; becauſe if the meaſure of *one Degree* be once found, the Earth being ſuppoſed round, 'tis plain all the other Meaſures may eaſily be deduced from this.

3. Thus if I take the Height of the North Pole-Star in this Place with a very good Quadrant or Sextant, and then proceed directly Northward or Southward, till by

THERE is a geometrical Method of deſcribing the Superficies of the Celeſtial and Terreſtrial

by the ſame Inſtrument I find the ſaid Star raiſed or depreſſed juſt *one* Degree; then 'tis evident I muſt have paſs'd over juſt one Degree on the Earth's Surface, which therefore might be known by actual Menſuration, were it poſſible to find ſuch a Part of the Earth's Surface as is exactly even and ſpherical, and truly in the ſame Meridian.

4. Now this is ſcarcely to be expected any where, except in ſuch a Country as *Holland*, which is level, and when overflowed with Water, and that frozen into Ice, the icy Surface may be near the Truth; and a Degree meaſured in the Meridian upon this Ice muſt of courſe be pretty exact, if due Regard be had to Refractions in taking the Height of the Pole. Thus *Snellius* actually meaſured the Diſtance between a Tower at *Leyden* and another at *Souterwode* three Times over, and then a ſtraight Line in the Meridian on the Ice, whence by a Trigonometrical Proceſs he meaſured a Degree; but as ſome Miſtakes had been made in the Calculations, the indefatigable Mr. *Muſchenbroeck* attempted the Thing anew, and formed Triangles upon the fundamental Baſe of *Snellius* in the Year 1700, and found 57033 *Toiſes* to a Degree.

5. Now this was but 27 Toiſes leſs than had been found by the Royal Academy of *Paris*; and this was but little different from the Meaſure of a Degree ſome Time before by our Countryman *Norwood*, which reſulted from his meaſuring the Diſtance between *London* and *York*, which he did in the Year 1653; and according to him the Length of a Degree is 69½ of *Engliſh* Miles.

6. Mr. *Greaves* compared the *Engliſh* Foot taken from the Iron-Standard in *Guild-Hall*, *London*, with the Standards of divers Nations. The Proportion between ſome of them is as follows:

Terreſtrial Globe on a Plane; and this is call'd the *Projection of the Sphere in Plano*: Thus,

The *Engliſh* Foot,	1.000
The preſent *Roman* Foot,	0.967
The *Grecian* Foot,	1.007
The *Paris* Foot,	1.068
The *Leyden* or *Rhinland* Foot,	1.033
The *Bologna* Foot,	1.250

7. If the *French* Meaſure of a Degree, *viz.* 57060 Toiſes, be corrected by making proper Allowances for the *Proceſſion of the Equinoxes*, the *Aberration of Light* in the Stars he made uſe of, and the *Refraction of Light* through the Air (all which were neglected by *Picard*) the true Meaſure of a Degree at *Paris* will be 56925,7 Toiſes.

8. Now ſince the famous *Caſſini* and Sir *Iſaac Newton* had both of them ſhewn the Earth could not naturally have a *ſpherical Form*, but muſt be a *Spheroid*; and ſince theſe great Men differed in their Accounts of what Sort the Spheroid was, Sir *Iſaac* ſhewing it to be an *Oblate Spheroid*, and *Caſſini* ſtrongly contending for the *Oblong Spheroid*; the King of *France* was nobly inclined to have this important Affair decided, and accordingly ordered the Length of a Degree to be meaſured at the Equator, and at the Polar Circle; that by comparing them with the Length of a Degree near *Paris*, it might be known whether the Earth were oblong or flat towards the Poles.

10. And ſince a Determination of the Figure of the Earth, and its Dimenſions by actual Menſuration, is a Problem of the higheſt Concern in *Navigation*, *Aſtronomy*, *Geography*, *Levelling*, *Hydraulics*, &c. I think it quite neceſſary the Reader ſhould have an Idea of the Manner in which this was effected by the *French* Mathematicians, and which therefore I ſhall give from the Book entitled, *The Figure of the Earth determined*, &c. by *Maupertuis*.

11. The

Vol. III. *Plate* LXVII. *P.* 295.

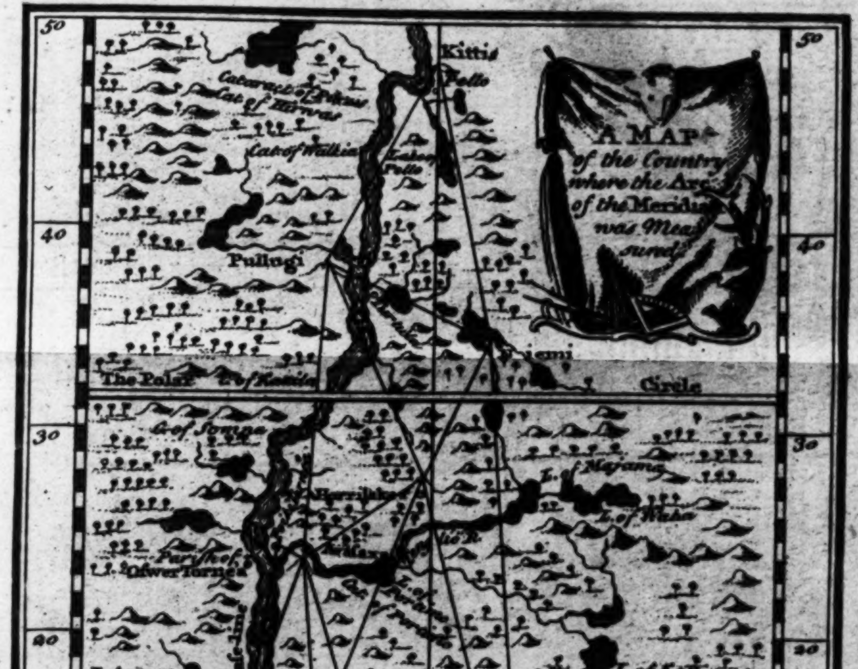
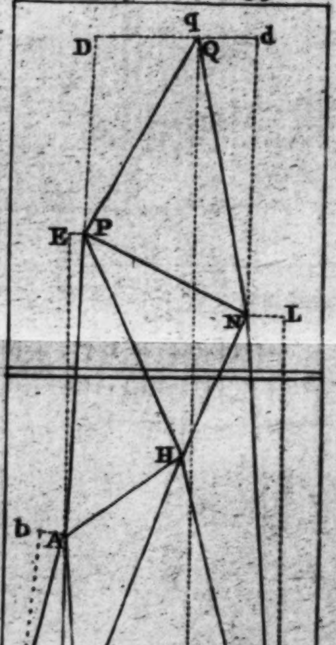
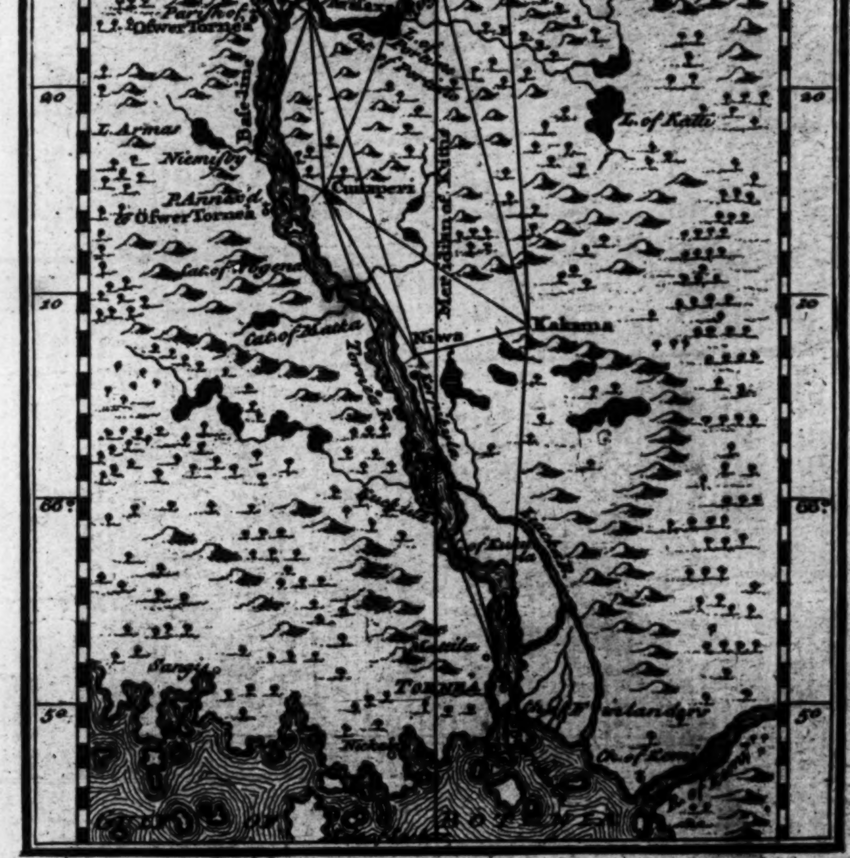
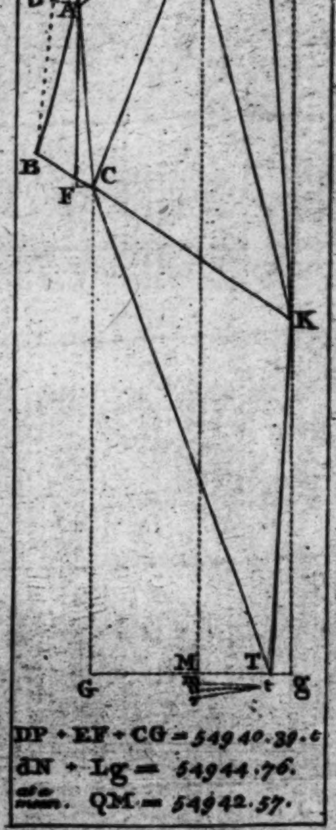


Fig. 2. p. 295.




Parrshof
Öfwer Tornea
L. Armas
Niemisby
Bale-line
Cuitaperi
P. Annas'd.
Öfwer Tornea
Cat. of Meyena
Cat. of Matka
Tornea R.
Niwa
Kakama
Meridian of Kittis
L. of Kalli
Mattila
TORNEA
Sangis
Nickala
50
60
10
20
40


B
A
F
C
K
G
M
T
t
g
DP + EF + CG = 54940.39.t
dN + Lg = 54944.76.
QM = 54942.57.

Thus, one Half of the Globe is projected on one Side of the Plane, and the other Half

11. The arduous Taſk was performed in *Lapland* by Meſſieurs *Clairaut*, *Camus*, *Le Monnier*, *Maupertuis*, the *Abbé Outhier*, and M. *Celſius* of *Upſal*. They ſat out for *Stockholm*, and from thence for the Bottom of the Gulph of *Bothnia*. Being arrived at *Tornea*, they began their Work; for from thence they ſat out, *July* 6, 1736, to reconnoitre the Country, of which I have here added their Map, by which the Affair is made eaſy to underſtand. Plate LXVII.

12. After twelve Hours Voyage up the River, they came to the Hamlet *Korpykila*, and from thence through the Foreſt they went on Foot to the ſteep Mountain *Niwa*, whoſe Summit (a bare Rock) they made their firſt Station. Farther up the River they met with another high Mountain called *Avoſaxa*, on the Top of which they built a *Signal*. They then went up the River *Tenglio*, and croſſed a Moraſs to the great Mountain *Horrilakero*, where they built another *Signal*. From hence they returned back again, and in their Way croſſed the Foreſt to another very ſteep Mountain call'd *Cuitaperi*, which afforded a very fair Proſpect to all the reſt.

13. After this they went ſome to one Part and ſome to another, and built Signals on the Summits of other Mountains, *viz. Kakama*, *Pullingi*, *Niemi*, and *Kittis*, near the Village *Pello*. Then taking the Angles which the viſual Rays made, connecting the ſeveral Signals by a Quadrant of two Feet Radius, furniſhed with a Micrometer, they conſtituted a *Heptagonal* Figure TCAPQNK, extending from the Tower of the Church of *Tornea* at T, to *Kittis* at Q. Fig. 2.

14. And becauſe the Truth of their Work may the better appear, I ſhall here ſet before the Reader the Sum of all the Angles, of which the ſeveral Angles of the Heptagon did conſiſt, *viz.*

Half on the other; and if the Plane be that of the Ecliptic or Equinoctial, as in the

			°	′	″
1. The Angle	CTK =		24	22	54,5
2. The Angle TCA =	KCT =		37	9	12
	KCH =		100	9	56,8
	HCA =		36	56	53,4
3. The Angle CAP =	CAH =		112	21	48,6
	HAP =		53	45	56,7
4. The Angle APQ =	APH =		31	19	55,5
	HPN =		37	22	2,1
	NPQ =		87	52	24,3
5. The Angle	PQN =		40	14	52,7
6. The Angle QNK =	QNP =		51	53	4,3
	PNH =		93	25	7,5
	HNK =		27	11	53,3
7. The Angle NKT =	NKH =		9	41	47,7
	HKC =		43	45	35,6
	CKT =		118	28	12
	The Sum of all,		900	1	37

15. But since the Angles of any Polygon are equal to twice the Number of Right Angles that the Figure has Sides, abating 4, therefore the Sum of the Angles of a Heptagon is $14 - 4 = 10 \times 90^{\circ} = 900^{\circ}$. Hence if their Heptagon had been taken on a Plane, it would have exceeded the Truth but by 1′ 37″; but since the Figure lay on a convex Surface, the Sum ought to be a little more than 900°. And thence it appears to what a surprising Degree of Exactness they attained in this Undertaking.

16. Now in order to measure the *Meridian-Line* QM, which lay through the Middle of the Heptagon, or rather the Line q m, which was the correct Distance between the two Parallels where they made their *Astronomical Observations* with a Sector, (whose Accuracy is incredible, and of a Structure not here to be described) I say,

the Caſe of the Celeſtial Globe, theſe Projections are then call'd the *Celeſtial Hemiſpheres.*

I ſay, in order to meaſure this Line q m, it was neceſſary to begin with ſome Baſe-Line to be firſt of all meaſured, and then to compute a fundamental Triangle or two, for the Grounds of their future Work.

17. Thus they pitched on the Diſtance between *Niemiſby* and the Village *Poiki*, for the *Baſe-Line* B *b*, becauſe it lay along the River, and could be moſt accurately meaſured on the Ice. It was meaſured twice over,

	Toiſes.	*Feet.*	*In.*
The firſt Menſuration gave —	7406	5	0
The ſecond — — —	7406	5	4
The mean Length therefore is	7406	5	2

18. Having this Baſe-Line known, they calculated the two Triangles A B *b* and A B C, from which they found the Diſtance between *Avaſaxa* and *Guitaperi* to be 8659,94 = A C; from whence they proceeded to find the Sides and Angles of all the other Triangles round the Figure, as A H C, A H P, P Q N, C T K, *&c.* and from thence having found the Sides A P, P Q, N K, K T, T C, they formed the Right-angled Triangles A E P, A F C, P D Q, C G M, by drawing E F, G C, P D, at Right Angles to the Parallels paſſing through Q and M, and parallel to the Meridian Line Q M; and the ſame they did on the other Side the Figure, as is there repreſented.

19. Having thus meaſured the ſeveral Lines, they were found as follows.

		On the other Side.	
P D =	9350,45	N d =	13297,88
A E =	14213,24	K L =	24995,83
A F =	8566,08	K g =	16651,05
C G =	22810,62		
Total,	54940,39		54944,76
			54940,39

Therefore at a Mean the Meridian Line is Q M = 54942.57

Spheres. But with regard to the Terreſtrial Globe, they are generally made on the Plane

20. By very accurate Methods they deduced the Length of the Line q m = 55020,09 Toiſes, and the ſtill more correct Diſtance q u = 55023,47. But this Diſtance or Arch q u, by the niceſt Aſtronomical Obſervations and Corrections, was found to be equal to 57′ 28″,67 of a Degree. Therefore as 57′ 28″,67 is to 55023,47 Toiſes, ſo is 60′, or 1 Degree, to 57437,9 Toiſes in one Degree at the *Arctic* Circle.

21. If therefore from the Length of a Degree here, *viz.*

at the *Arctic* Circle, — — — 57437,9
you ſubduct the Length of a Degree at *Paris*, by *Picard*, — — 56925,7

the Difference will be — — — 512,2 Toiſes, or 3282,878 Feet of *Engliſh* Meaſure.

22. Hence, having the Length of a Degree, the Radius of Curvature is found for any Part of the Elliptic Meridian. For let R denote that Radius, then it is 3,1416 : 1 :: 360 : 2 R :: 180 : R; therefore $R = \frac{180}{3,1416}$, or $R = \frac{189 \times 57437,9}{3,1416}$ Toiſes, for the Curvature of the Earth's Surface in the Latitude of 66° 20′ at *Lapland*; and in *France* the Radius of the Earth's Curvature is $R = \frac{180 \times 56925,7}{3,1416}$ Toiſes; or in *Engliſh* Miles thoſe Radii are R = 3994, and $R = 3958,4$.

23. We are now prepared to aſſign the Proportion of the Axis of the Earth to the Diameter of the Equator from this actual Menſuration; in order to which we muſt firſt of all premiſe ſome *Theorems*, which reſult from the Properties of the Ellipſe. Therefore let E P *e* denote the Elliptic Surface of the Earth, E *e* the Diameter of the Equator, and C P the Semi-axis of the Earth. Let A I be the Radius of Curvature to any Point I of the Ellipſis, I F a Tangent; and draw H I and

Plate LXVI. Fig. 6.

Plane of the *General Meridian or Horizon*, and then they are commonly call'd *Maps of*

and I D perpendicular to C P and C E. Take the Arch I i = 1 Degree, and Draw A i and the Perpendicular $i d$; there A is the Centre of a Circle touching the Ellipsis in the Points I, i. The Angle I B E = D I F is the Latitude of the Place I. Now put z = C E, u = C P, x = C D = H d, y = D I; and let 1, t, s, denote the Radius, Tangent, and Secant of the Angle I B D; and lastly, let A I = r.

24. Therefore	1	$tt + 1 = ss$, and so $t^2 - s^2 = 1$. *Theor.* I.
Let ——	2	$z^2 : u^2 :: 1 : a$, $\therefore \frac{u^2}{z^2} = a$. *Theor.* II.
Hence ——	3	$\frac{u^2}{z} = az = p$, the Parameter. *Theor.* III.
Again —	4	$1 : s :: y : \text{I F} = sy$. *Theor.* IV.
Also ——	5	$1 : t :: y \text{ D F} = ty$. *Theor.* V.
And ——	6	$t : 1 :: \text{I F} = sy : \text{I B} = \frac{sy}{t}$. *Theor.* VI.
And ——	7	$t : 1 :: y : \text{D B} = \frac{y}{t}$. *Theor.* VII.
Then *per Conics*	8	$\text{E D} \times \text{D } e : \text{D I}^2 :: \text{C E}^2 : \text{C P}^2$.
That is,	9	$zz - xx : yy :: zz : uu :: 1 : a$. *Theor.* VIII.
Also because	10	C D : C E :: C E : C F, *per Conics*,
That is,	11	$x : z :: z : x + ty$,
We have	12	$zz = x^2 + tyx$, or $z^2 - x^2 = tyx$.
Therefore (9)	13	$1 : a :: tyx : y^2 :: tx : y$.
Hence —	14	$y = atx$, or $x = \frac{y}{at}$. *Theor.* IX.
And also	15	$ax = \frac{y}{t} = \text{D B}$. *Theor.* X.
Since (14)	16	$y = atx$, $\therefore z^2 = x^2 + xty = x^2 + a^2t^2x^2$.
Wherefore	17	$z^2 = x^2 \times 1 + att$, $\therefore z = x\sqrt{1 + att}$. *Th.* XI.
Whence also	18	$x^2 = \frac{z^2}{1 + att^2}$, $\therefore x = \frac{z}{\sqrt{1 + att}}$. *Theor.* XII.
Therefore also	19	$y = \frac{atz}{\sqrt{1 + att}}$. *Theor.* XIII.

Because

of the World. And the ſeveral Circles, and Parts of the Surface of one Hemiſphere are ſo

Becauſe	20	$DC : DB :: x : ax :: 1 : a :: z^2 : u^2$.
Theref. Conv.	21	$CD : CB :: 1 : 1-u :: Cd : Cb$.
Whence	22	$Dd\,(=y-1) : Bb :: 1 : 1-a$.
Alſo we have	23	$GI : yI :: BF : DF$, becauſe $IG : FBI$.
Wh. conjointly	24	$GI : Bb :: BF : DF-a \times DF$.
Again —	25	$GI : Bb :: AI : AB :: BF : DF-b \times DF$.
Conv. and Inv.	26	$IB : AI :: BD+u \times DF : BF = BD+DF$.
In Species	27	$\frac{sy}{t} : r :: \frac{y}{t}+aty : \frac{y}{t}+ty$.
That is,	28	$\frac{sy}{t} : r :: 1+att : 1+tt = ss$.
Whence (15, 18)	29	$r = \frac{s^2 y}{t+at^3} = \frac{s^2 ax}{1+att} = \frac{s^2 az}{\sqrt[3]{1+att^2}}$. *Theor.* XIV.
Whence alſo	30	$x = \frac{r \times \sqrt[3]{1+att}}{s^2 a}$, and $zz = \frac{r^6 \times 1+att}{s^6 a^2}$. *T.* XV.
Therefore	31	$z^{\frac{2}{3}} = \frac{r^{\frac{2}{3}}+r^{\frac{2}{3}}att}{s^2 a^{\frac{2}{3}}} = \frac{r^{\frac{2}{3}}+r^{\frac{2}{3}}att}{a^{\frac{2}{3}}+a^{\frac{2}{3}}tt}$. *Theor.* XVI.
Whence alſo	32	$tt = \frac{r^{\frac{2}{3}}-a^{\frac{2}{3}}z}{a^{\frac{1}{3}}z^{\frac{1}{3}}-a^{\frac{2}{3}}}$. *Theor.* XVII.
For any other Lat. we have	33	$zz = \frac{r^2 \times 1+att}{s^6 a^2} = \frac{r^2 \times 1+att}{s^6 a^2}$.
Whence it is	34	$r^{\frac{2}{3}}ss+r^{\frac{2}{3}}attss = r^{\frac{2}{3}}ss+r^{\frac{2}{3}}attss$.
Therefore laſtly	35	$a = \frac{r^{\frac{2}{3}}ss-r^{\frac{2}{3}}ss}{r^{\frac{2}{3}}ttss-r^{\frac{2}{3}}ttss}$. *Theor.* XVIII.

25. From theſe Theorems we can calculate whatever relates to the Figure and Magnitude of the Earth; and firſt to determine the Value of a, or the Ratio of z^2 to x^2, that is, of CE to CP. In order to this, we have r, s, t, for the Latitude of 60° 20′ at *Lapland*; and r, s, t, for the Latitude of 49° 22′, being the Middle

ſo delineated on the ſaid Plane, as they would appear thereon to an Eye placed in the

of the Degree meaſured in *France*. (See *Art.* 28.) For having $r = 3994$, and $r = 3958{,}4$; whence by Logarithms we have $r^{\frac{1}{2}}ss = 593$, and $r^{\frac{3}{2}}ss = 1552{,}9$; alſo $r^{\frac{1}{2}}tss = 3090{,}1$, and $r^{\frac{3}{2}}ttss = 2109$. Therefore $a = \frac{959{,}3}{981{,}1} = \frac{u^2}{z^2}$. Whence we get $z : u :: 313{,}22 : 309{,}72 :: CE : CP$. Therefore by Menſuration it appears, that CE exceeds CP in a greater Proportion than that of 230 to 229, as was obſerved in the *Scholium* of *Annot.* XXXIV.

26. Put $\begin{cases} r = az \text{ at E,} \\ r = \frac{z}{\sqrt{a}} \text{ at P;} \end{cases}$ then $az : \frac{z}{\sqrt{a}} :: d : D$; hence $\frac{d}{\sqrt{a}} = aD$; and $d = a\sqrt{a} \times D = \frac{u^3}{z^3} D$; and $z^3 d = u^3 D$; therefore $d : D :: z^3 : u^3$.

27. The Theorem $z = CE = \frac{r \times \overline{1 + att}^{\frac{3}{2}}}{ss\sqrt{a}}$ is (by Logarithms) equal to 3971,1 Miles; and ſo the Diameter of the Equator is equal to 7942,2 Miles. Whence becauſe $\frac{u^2}{z^2} = a$, $u = z\sqrt{a} = CP = 3926{,}2$ Miles; and ſo the Axis of the Earth is equal to 7852,4 Miles; ſo that the Equatorial Diameter exceeds the Axis by 89,8 or 90 Miles, which is near three times as much as the Theory gave it. See *Annot.* XXXIV. 36.

28. In any given Latitude the Radius of Curvature is found by *Theorem* XIV, *viz.* $r = \frac{as^3 z}{1 + att^{\frac{3}{2}}}$; and becauſe under the Pole P the Angle IBE is a Right one, s and t will in that Caſe become infinite and equal; and therefore $r = \frac{z}{\sqrt{a}} = 4016{,}6$ Miles, which is the

greateſt

the Pole, or Middle Point of the other Hemisphere. Hence it will come to pass, that the

greatest of all. And under the Equator that Angle vanishes, and there $s = 1$, and $t = 0$; and so $r = az =$ 3881,8 Miles the least of all.

29. The Radius of Convexity being known, we find the Length of a Degree in any Latitude by this Analogy; As 180 : 3,1416 :: r : $\frac{3,1416\,r}{180}$ = the Length of the Degree required. Thus under the Equator we have $\frac{3,1416}{180} \times 3881,8 = 67\frac{1}{4}$ Miles, for the least Degree; and under the Pole we have $\frac{3,1416}{180} \times 4016,6 = 70\frac{1}{10}$ Miles, for the greatest Degree of Latitude: A *mean Degree* therefore is 68,92 Miles. Thus also a Degree in the Latitude 49° 22 is $\frac{3,1416}{180} \times 3858,4 = 69,087$ Miles; and in the Latitude 66° 20 it is $\frac{3,1416}{180} \times 3994,1 = 69,709$ Miles.

29. If the Length of a Degree be known, the Radius of Convexity may be determined, and thence the Latitude of the Place by *Theor.* XVII. $tt = \frac{r^{\frac{2}{3}} - a^{\frac{2}{3}} z^{\frac{2}{3}}}{a^{\frac{2}{3}} z^{\frac{2}{3}} - a r^{\frac{2}{3}}}$; for if the Tangent of an Angle be known, the Angle itself, that is, the Latitude, is known also.

31. Hence also the Radius of any Parallel of Latitude may be discovered; for, by *Theorem* XII. HI=CD $= x = \frac{z}{\sqrt{1 + att}}$; and 180 : 3,1416 :: x : a Degree of Longitude in the given Parallel. In the Equator $x = z$; hence $\frac{3,1416}{180} \times 3971,1 = 69,309$ Miles, the Length of a Degree in the Equator.

32. Hence

the Stars and Conſtellations of the Hemiſpheres, and the Parts of Land and Water in

32. Hence the Circumference of the Earth under the Equator is $360 \times 69{,}309 = 24951$ Miles. I might now proceed to calculate the Surface and Solidity of the Earth as a Spheroid; but the Proceſs would be tedious, and anſwer no great Purpoſe, enough having been ſaid for any Perſon to form a proper Idea of the Magnitude and Figure of the Earth. I conclude with obſerving, that there is about $2\frac{1}{4}$ Miles between the greateſt and leaſt Degree of Latitude within the Compaſs of our common Charts: *Quære* then, *If our Theory of Navigation, founded upon an Hypotheſis of their being all equal, be not very erroneous; and if it be not neceſſary to have one corrected according to the foregoing Meaſures?* See my *New Treatiſe* of GEOGRAPHY and NAVIGATION lately publiſhed, containing new Tables of *Meridional Parts* and *Sea Charts*, adapted to the *Spheroid* of the Earth, and fitted for Practice; being calculated to every Minute of a Degree.

33. *A* TABLE *of Arcs of the Meridian to the Spheroid, in Minutes of the Equator.* By the Rev. Mr. *Murdoch.*

D.	*Spheroid.*	*Sphere.*	*Diff.*	D.	*Spheroid.*	*Sphere.*	*Diff.*
1	58.7	60.0	1.3	10	587.0	600.0	13.0
2	117.3	120.0	2.7	11	645.8	660.0	14.2
3	176.0	180.0	4.0	12	704.5	720.0	15.5
4	234.7	240.0	5.3	13	763.3	780.0	16.7
5	293.4	300.0	6.6	14	822.1	840.0	17.9
6	352.1	360.0	7.9	15	880.9	900.0	19.1
7	410.8	420.0	9.2	16	939.7	960.0	20.3
8	469.6	480.0	10.4	17	998.5	1020.0	21.5
9	528.3	540.0	11.7	18	1057.4	1080.0	22.6

in the Maps are not represented in their natural and just Distances, and in their due Magnitudes

D.	Spheroid.	Sphere.	Diff.	D.	Spheroid.	Sphere.	Diff.
19	1116.3	1140.0	23.7	39	2299.2	2340.0	40.8
20	1175.2	1200.0	24.8	40	2358.7	2400.0	41.3
21	1234.1	1260.0	25.9	41	2418.2	2460.0	41.8
22	1293.0	1320.0	27.0	42	2477.7	2520.0	42.3
23	1350.0	1380.0	28.0	43	2537.3	2580.0	42.7
24	1411.0	1440.0	29.0	44	2596.8	2640.0	43.2
25	1470.0	1500.0	30.0	45	2656.6	2700.0	43.4
26	1529.0	1560.0	31.0	46	2716.4	2760.0	43.6
27	1588.1	1620.0	31.9	47	2776.2	2820.0	43.8
28	1647.2	1680.0	32.8	48	2835.9	2880.0	44.1
29	1706.3	1740.0	33.7	49	2895.5	2940.0	44.5
30	1765.5	1800.0	34.5	50	2955.3	3000.0	44.7
31	1824.7	1860.0	35.3	51	3015.2	3060.0	44.8
32	1883.9	1920.0	36.1	52	3075.0	3120.0	44.0
33	1943.1	1980.0	36.9	53	3135.0	3180.0	45.0
34	2002.4	2040.0	37.6	54	3194.9	3240.0	45.1
35	2061.7	2100.0	38.3	55	3254.9	3300.0	45.1
36	2121.0	2160.0	39.0	56	3314.9	3360.0	45.1
37	2180.4	2220.0	39.6	57	3370.0	3420.0	45.0
38	2239.8	2280.0	40.2	58	3435.1	3480.0	44.9

Magnitudes and Forms, as on the Globes themſelves: Yet moſt of the Problems of either Globe are performable on theſe artificial Projections, by thoſe who underſtand their Nature and Uſe. But theſe Things will be beſt underſtood from a View of

D.	Spheroid.	Sphere.	Diff.	D.	Spheroid.	Sphere.	Diff.
59	3495.2	3540.0	44.8	75	4460,8	4500.0	39.2
60	3555.3	3600.0	44.7	76	4521.3	4560.0	38.7
61	3615.7	3660.0	44.5	77	4581.9	4620.0	38.1
62	3675.7	3720.0	44.3	78	4642.5	4680.0	37.5
63	3736.0	3780.0	44.0	79	4703.1	4740.0	36.9
64	3796.2	3840.0	43.8	80	4763.7	4800.0	36.3
65	3856.5	3900.0	43.5	81	4824.3	4860.0	35.7
66	3916.8	3960.0	43.2	82	4884.9	4920.0	35.1
67	3977.2	4020.0	42.8	83	4945.5	4980.0	34.5
68	4037.5	4080.0	42.5	84	5006.2	5040.0	33.8
69	4097.9	4140.0	42.1	85	5066.8	5100.0	33.2
70	4158.4	4200.0	41.6	86	5127.5	5160.0	32.5
71	4218.8	4260.0	41.2	87	5188.2	5220.0	31.8
72	4279.3	4320.0	40.7	88	5248.8	5280.0	31.2
73	4339.8	4380.0	40.2	89	5309.5	5340.0	30.5
74	4400.3	4440.0	39.7	90	5370.2	5400.0	29.8

those Prints, and a Specimen of the Praxis of their Use (CXLIX).

(CXLIX) 1. The Solution of most of these GEOGRAPHICAL PROBLEMS may be performed by a *Trigonometrical Calculation*, as is evident from the Original Diagram we before made use of for the Solution of *Astronomical Problems*. Thus if A and Z be any two Places on the Surface of the Globe, then in the Triangle AZN we have

Plate LXVI. Fig. 1.

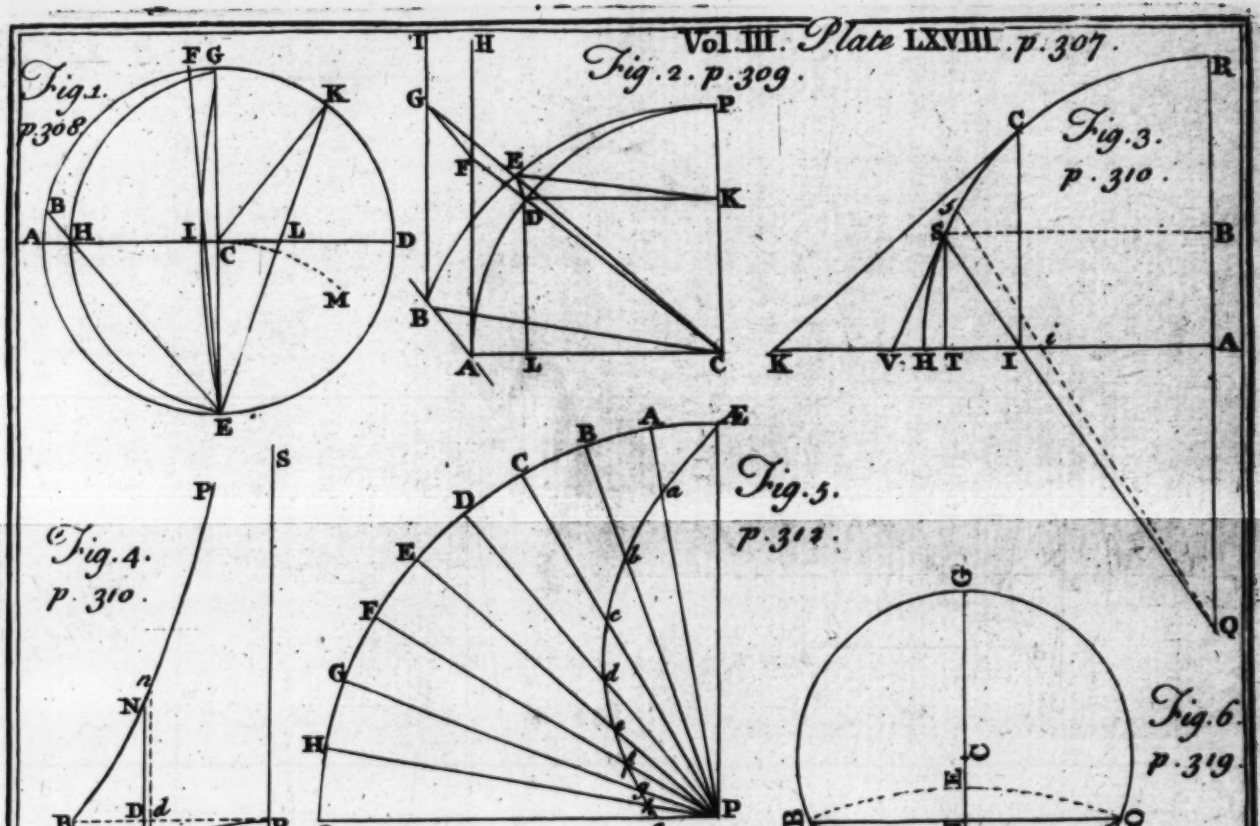
Z N the *Co-Latitude* of the Place Z.
A N the *Co-Latitude* of the Place A.
Z A the *Distance* of the Places A and Z from one another.
Z N A the *Difference of Longitude*.
A Z N the Angle of *Position*, or *Bearing* of A from Z.
Z A N the Angle of *Position*, or *Bearing* of Z from A.

2. After the same Manner may Problems of NAVIGATION be solved; and indeed the only true and natural Way of SAILING is upon the *Arch* of a *Great Circle*, which gives the nearest Distance between any two Places on the Surface of the Globe; and therefore the nearer a Ship keeps to the Arch of a Great Circle, the shorter will her Way or Passage be from one Place to another. Thus in the same Triangle Z N A, if it be proposed to sail from Z to A, the Ship ought to be directed upon the Arch Z A. But in order to be acquainted with this Method of Sailing, the Doctrine of the Sphere must be well understood; therefore I shall refer the Reader who desires it, to Vol. II. of my *Young Trigonometer's Guide*.

3. However, I shall here subjoin the *Philosophical Principles* of all Kinds of Geographical and Nautical MAPS and CHARTS: And first I shall shew the Nature of what is call'd the ORTHOGRAPHIC PROJECTION of the SPHERE. Let A B D E be the Primitive Circle, or Plane of the Projection, which we may suppose to be a Meridian; and let A E D be a Great Circle elevated above

Fig. 7.

Vol. III. Plate LXVIII. p. 307.



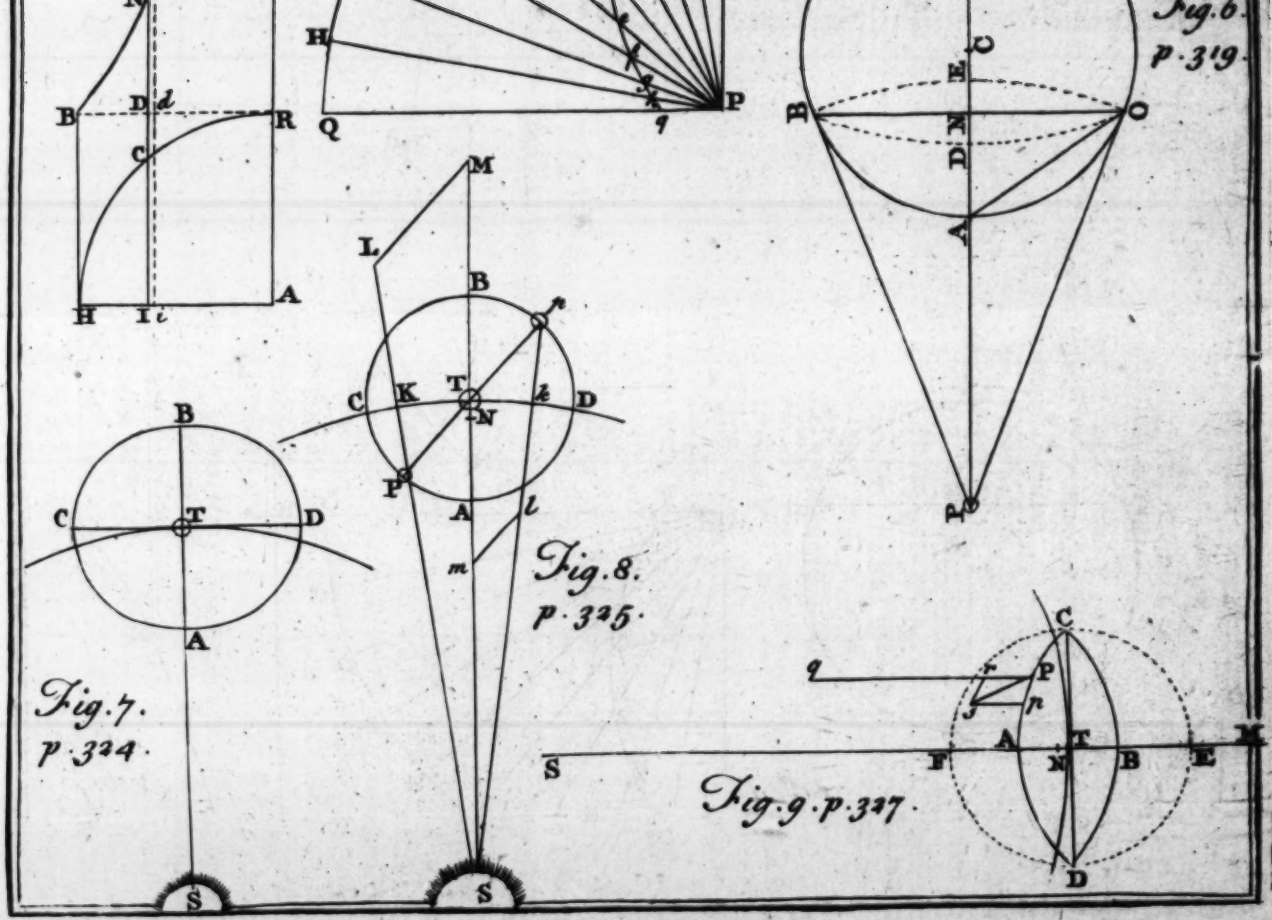

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Fig. 6
p. 319
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Fig. 8.
p. 325
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Fig. 7.
p. 324
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Fig. 9. p. 327

above the Plane in any Angle B A E. Suppoſe this Circle to be projected on the Plane into the Curve A F D, by Perpendiculars paſſing through every Point thereof; it is required to find the Nature of the projected Curve A F D.

4. In order to this, let E F and I G be two Perpendiculars; draw G I parallel to C E, and H I parallel to C F, and G *g* to C I; and from *g* let fall the Perpendicular *g h*; then is the Right-angled Triangle G H I equal and ſimilar to *g h* C, and *g h* C is ſimilar to E F C. Wherefore putting A C = E C = *a*, C I = *x*, G I = *y*, C E = *b*, and H I = *y*; then by the Property of the Circle we have A I × I D = G I², that is, $a a - x x = y y$, and $y = \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} =$ G I; but G I : H I :: (*g* C : *h* C ::) E C : F C, that is, *y* : *y* :: *a* : *b*; therefore $y = \frac{b y}{a} = \frac{b}{a}\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$; which ſhews the Curve A F D to be an *Ellipſe*, whoſe Semi-axes are A C and C F.

5. Hence the Circles of a Sphere viewed at an infinite Diſtance are projected into *Ellipſes*. Thus the *Circle of Illumination* on the Diſk of the Moon is an *Ellipſis*, as obſerved *Annot.* CXXXV. 23. Thus alſo a Sphere ſet in the Sun-Beams will have its Circles all projected into elliptic Shadows. And hence it is we conſtruct the ORTHOGRAPHIE PROJECTION, call'd the ANALEMMA; which ſee in my fore-cited Book.

6. Now becauſe C E : C F :: Radius : Co-ſine of E C F, it appears that the Semidiameter C K of every Circle is projected into the Co-ſine F C of its Elevation above the Plane of Projection. Hence alſo it appears, that in this Projection the ſame Number of Degrees in a Right Circle, as B C E, will be projected into very different Portions of the Diameter of the Plane B E. Thus 10 Degrees from the Pole of the Primitive will be projected into the Arch C K, but 10 Degrees from the Periphery will be projected into E M. But C K is to E M as the *Right Sine* of 10 Degrees to the *Verſed Sine* of the ſame; that is, as 1736 to 152, or nearly as 12 to 1. Hence the Reaſon why the Spots in the Sun appear to move ſo much faſter over the Middle Parts

of the Disk than on the Outside, and why their Motion is always unequal; with other Phænomena of the like Nature.

Plate LXVIII. Fig. 1.

7. The STEREOGRAPHIC PROJECTION of the SPHERE is that on which our Maps are commonly made, and depends on this Principle, That if the Plane of any Meridian be supposed the Plane of the Projection, then an Eye placed in one Pole of that Meridian will project all the Circles in the opposite Hemisphere into circular Arches on the said Plane. Thus let AGDE be any Meridian; then the Diameter A D, dividing it into the upper and nearer Hemisphere, is called the *Line of Measures*; and an Eye placed at the Pole E will project every Point B, F, G, in the opposite Semicircle into the Points H, I, C, into the Line of Measures A D, by the Visual Rays E B, E F, E G.

8. Hence if the Arch A B = F G = 10 Degrees, then will their Representatives in the Line of Measures be A H and I C; and the Points H and I are those through which the Circles of 10 Degrees and of 80 Degrees do pass in Projection, *viz.* the Circles G H E and G I E, as is evident from considering the Figure. Hence the Reason why the Meridians do all lie nearer to each other in the middle Parts of the Map than on the Outsides; and consequently, why the several Parts of the Earth cannot be duly represented on such Maps, either in respect of Magnitude or Position.

9. On E as a Centre describe the Arch C M, and draw the Line E K; the Arch G K will be projected into the Line C L, which is the Tangent of the Angle C E L. But the Angle C E L is equal to Half the Angle G C K, or Arch G K; therefore any Arch G K is projected into a Line C L equal to the Tangent of Half that Arch. Hence the Line C D is called the *Line of Half-Tangents* in respect of the Quadrant G K D.

10. On this Projection are usually made all the Maps of the World in two Hemispheres; there is also another call'd the GLOBULAR PROJECTION, wherein all the Meridians are equally distant, as they are on the Globe itself. They are circular Arches here, as in the last Projection, and are drawn after the same Manner, but are

not projected by the Eye on the Surface as they are. By this Sort of Maps the several Parts of the Earth have their proper Proportion of Magnitude, Distance and Situation assigned nearly as on the Globe itself. As this Sort of Map is for that Reason very useful, and not common, I have given one here for the Reader's Use, corrected from the latest Observations. I have also just published a New PLANISPHERE on the *Globular Projection*, with the Solution of *Geographical* and *Astronomical Problems* thereby. Plate LXXII.

11. Besides the foregoing, there is another very useful Projection, generally made Use of for Charts, and sometimes for Maps; it goes by the Name of MERCATOR's PROJECTION, but was first invented by Mr. *Wright* long before. In this the Meridians and Parallels are straight Lines, and the former equidistant from each other. Hence in this Way the Degrees of Longitude in every Parallel are the same, and equal to those in the Equator; also the Degrees of Latitude are all unequal; both which are contrary to what they are on the Globe. Therefore Maps of this Sort do not exhibit the true Dimensions or Proportions of the several Parts of the Earth; however, they are very useful on divers Accounts; and that which I have given from Dr. *Halley* to illustrate the Account of the Winds is of this Kind.

12. But the greatest Use of this Projection is in SAILING; I shall here therefore shew how it is constructed in the following Manner. Let A B be an Arch of the Equator contained between any two Meridians A P, B P, meeting in the Pole P of the Sphere whose Centre is C. Upon the Points A and B let there be erected the Perpendiculars A H and B I, and let D E represent an Arch of any Parallel between the same Meridians; draw C A and C B, K D and K E perpendicular to P C; through D and E draw C F, C G, and join F G; lastly, let fall the Perpendicular D L. Plate LXVIII. Fig. 2.

13. Now the Arch A B in the Equator is to the similar Arch of the Parallel D E as A C to D K, or as Radius to the Co-sine of the Latitude A D. Suppose now the Meridians A P, B P, to be in part projected into the Perpendiculars A H and B I; then will the Arch

D E be projected into F G = A B; but in this Caſe D E, *the natural Length of the Arch, is to* F G *its protracted Length, as the Radius* C D *to the Secant* C F *of the Latitude, or as the Co-ſine* L C *to the Radius* C D; for C F : (C D =) A C :: D C : L C.

14. But in whatever Proportion the Degrees of any Parallel are increaſed or diminiſhed by a Projection in *Plano*, in the ſame Ratio ought the Degrees of Latitude alſo be increaſed or diminiſhed; otherwiſe the *true Bearing and Diſtances* of Places would be loſt, as in the Caſe of the *Plain Chart*, where the Degrees of Latitude are all equal. *The Degrees*, therefore, *of Latitude in* Mercator's *Chart increaſe in Proportion of the Secant of the Latitude to the Radius.*

Plate LXVIII. Fig. 3.

15. But that the Reader may ſee how ſuch a Meridian is projected, let R C H be a Quadrant of the Primitive Circle, and R Q a Diameter; draw Q S; then will the Arch S H be projected into H I, and R S into A I; but A I is the Tangent of ½ R S (by *Art.* 9.) Let S T and C I be perpendicular to A H, and draw the Tangents S V, C K, to the Points S and C meeting A H produced in V and K. And let H I = x, H S = z, and A H = 1.

16. Then becauſe A T : A H :: A H : A V, it is A T × A V = A H²: for the ſame Reaſon it is A I × A K = A H² = A T × A V. Wherefore A V : A K :: A I : A T (= S B) :: Q I : Q S. Let Q s be drawn infinitely near to Q S, then S s = $\dot{z}$, and I i = $\dot{x}$; and becauſe the Angle A I Q = T I S = I S V = Q s S, therefore the Triangles Q I i and Q S s are (in their naſcent State) ſimilar, and therefore Q I : Q S :: I i : S s :: $\dot{x}$: $\dot{z}$ :: A V : A K; conſequently, it is A V = $\frac{\dot{x}}{\dot{z}}$ = A K × $\dot{x}$.

17. But A K × $\dot{x}$ is the Fluxionary Rectangle of what is called a *Figure of Secants*, which may be thus explained. Let R C H be a Quadrant as before, H C an Arch, of which let the Secant be equal to I N rightly applied as an Ordinate to the Abſciſs H I = x; and if this be conceived to be done for every Point in the Quadrant, we ſhall have a Curve B N P deſcribed by the Point N, which appears to be a *rectangular Hyperbola* by compleating the Square A B. Now drawing i n infinitely

Fig. 4.

finitely near IN, we shall have $IN \times in = IN \times \dot{x}$ $(= AK \times \dot{x}) =$ Fluxion of the Area IHBN, which is composed of all the Secants belonging to the Arch HC, and is therefore called a *Figure of Secants*.

18. Now the Fluxion of the Area IHBN is to the Fluxion of the Rectangle IHBD as $IN \times \dot{x}$ to $ID \times \dot{x}$, that is, as IN to ID = AR, *viz.* as the Secant to the Radius. Therefore the Areas themselves are in the same Ratio; that is, the Area IHB : $R \times x$ :: S : R :: Z : z, supposing Z represents the Arch z protracted. In the same Manner it is shewn, that the Fluent or Area belonging to the Fluxion $AV \times \dot{z}$ is to $R \times z$ as Z : z; but this latter Fluent of $AV \times \dot{z}$ is equal to the Area IHBN, because their Fluxions are equal (by *Art.* 16.) Therefore IHBN : $R \times z$ :: Z : z; consequently, $IHBN \times z = R \times z \times Z$; whence IHBN = Z when R = 1.

19. But the hyperbolical Area INBH is the Logarithm or Measure of the Ratio of AH to AI, that is, of $\frac{1}{1-x} = \frac{1}{t}$, supposing t = Tangent of $\frac{1}{2}$ the Complement of z. But any Hyperbolical Logarithm is to the Tabular Logarithm of the same Ratio, as 2,302585, &c. to 1; therefore the Tabular Logarithm of $\frac{1}{t} \times$ 2,302585 = INBH = Z gives the Length of the protracted Meridional Arch, answering to the Natural Arch z or HS.

20. Therefore, if A and *a* denote a greater and a Lesser Arch, beginning from the Equator; then the Length of their Difference A — *a* will be $\frac{2,302585}{T} - \frac{2,302585}{t}$, or $2,302585 \times \frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{t}$, or $2,302585 \times \frac{t-T}{}$. That is, *From the Tabular Logarithm of the Tangent of* $\frac{1}{2}$ *the Complement of the Lesser Arch a, subduct that of the Tangent of the Greater Arch* A; *the Difference multiplied by* 2,302585 *will give the Meridional Parts of the Arch* A — *a*.

21. As I am upon a Subject of this Nature, it will be proper to observe, that since the Ship's Course is or

ought to be upon a *Rhumb-Line*, which makes equal Angles with every Meridian, therefore the Differences of Longitude will be the Logarithms of the Tangents of the Half-Complements of the Latitudes, as may be thus ſhewn. Let Æ Q be a Quadrant of the Equator, P the Pole of the World; P Æ, P A, P B, &c. the ſeveral Meridians projected *in Plano*, and Æ *a b c*, &c. the Rhumb-Line making equal Angles Æ *a* A, Æ *b* B, &c. with every Meridian.

Pl. LXX. Fig. 5.

22. Then if we make Æ A = A B = B = B C, &c. and very ſmall, then may the Triangles Æ P *a*, Æ P *b*, Æ P *c*, &c. be eſteemed rectilineal, and will be ſimilar; and therefore Æ P : P *a* :: P *a* : P *b* :: P *b* : P *c*, and ſo on. Now if Æ A expound the Ratio of *a* P to Æ P, then becauſe the Ratio of *b* P to P Æ is double the Ratio of *a* P to P Æ, and Æ P = 2 Æ A, therefore Æ B will expound the Ratio of *b* P to Æ P. Again, becauſe *c* P : Æ P = 3 × *a* P : Æ P, and Æ C = 3 Æ A, therefore Æ C expounds the Ratio of *c* P to Æ P; and ſo of the reſt.

23. Therefore the Arches Æ A, Æ B, Æ C, &c. are the Logarithms of *a* P, *b* P, *c* P, &c. in reſpect of P Æ. But Æ A, Æ B, &c. are the Differences of Longitude made in ſailing from Æ to *a*, or *b*, &c.; and *a* P, *b* P, &c. are Tangents of half the Complements of the Latitude A *a* B *b*, &c. (See *Art.* 9.) *Therefore the Differences of Longitude in ſailing on any Rhumb are the Logarithms of the Tangents of the Half-Co-Latitudes.*

24. Hence the Rhumb-Line has acquired the Name of the *Logarithmic Spiral.* Hence alſo it follows, that *any Table of Logarithmic Tangents is a Scale of the Differences of Longitude on ſome Rhumb or other.* Thus the Tabular Logarithms of Tangents in preſent Uſe are Differences of Longitude on that Rhumb which makes an Angle of 51° 38′ 9″; and the Rhumb which makes an Angle of 71° 1′ 42″, is the ſame for *Neper*'s Logarithmic Tangents. They who would ſee the Demonſtration of this, as alſo how a Table of Meridional Parts is from hence conſtructed, and likewiſe how all the Problems of Navigation may be ſolved by the common Table of Logarithmic Tangents only, may conſult my LOGARITHMOLOGIA. See alſo *Philoſophical Tranſactions*, N° 219, where

where the Theory is given at large by its Inventor Dr. *Halley*.

SCHOLIUM.

25. I have here added a Table of *Meridional Parts*, calculated for the Oblate Spheroid by the Rev. Mr. *Murdoch*, in his new and learned Treatise of *Mercator's Sailing applied to the true Figure of the Earth*. The Errors of the common Spherical Projections are not so very small in many Cases, as to be inconsiderable and not dangerous. For instance, if a Ship sails from South Latitude 25° to North Latitude 30°, and the Angle of the Course be 43°; then the Difference of Longitude by the common Table would be 3206′, exceeding the true Difference 3141 by 65′ or Miles. Also the Distance sailed would be 4512, exceeding the true Distance 4423, by 89′ or Miles: Which Differences are too great to be neglected. For other Instances of such a Correction of the Charts, I refer to the Author abovementioned. See also my New Treatise of GEOGRAPHY and NAVIGATION lately published.

27. *A* TABLE *of Meridional Parts to the Spheroid and Sphere, with their Differences.*

D.	Spheroid.	Sphere.	Diff.	D.	Spheroid.	Sphere.	Diff.
1	58.7	60.0	1.3	9	530.4	542.2	11.8
2	117.3	120.0	2.7	10	589.9	603.0	13.1
3	176.1	180.1	4.0	11	649.7	664.1	14.4
4	234.9	240.2	5.3	12	709.6	725.3	15.7
5	293.8	300.4	6.6	13	769.8	786.8	17.0
6	352.7	360.6	7.9	14	830.2	848.5	18.3
7	411.8	421.0	9.2	15	890.9	910.5	19.6
8	471.0	481.5	10.5	16	951.8	972.7	20.9

D.	Spheroid.	Sphere.	Diff.	D.	Spheroid.	Sphere.	Diff.
17	1013.1	1035.3	22.2	39	2497.2	2544.9	47.7
18	1074.8	1098.3	23.5	40	2573.9	2622.6	48.7
19	1136.8	1161.6	24.8	41	2651.8	2701.5	49.7
20	1199.2	1225.2	26.0	42	2730.9	2781.6	50.7
21	1262.0	1289.2	27.2	43	2811.3	2863.0	51.7
22	1325.3	1353.7	28.4	44	2893.1	2945.8	52.7
23	1389.0	1418.6	29.6	45	2976.2	3029.9	53.7
24	1453.3	1484.1	30.8	46	3060.9	3115.5	54.6
25	1518.0	1550.0	32.0	47	3147.2	3202.7	55.5
26	1583.3	1616.5	33.2	48	3235.1	3291.5	56.4
27	1649.1	1683.5	34.4	49	3324.8	3382.1	57.3
28	1715.6	1751.2	35.6	50	3416.3	3474.5	58.2
29	1782.7	1819.5	36.8	51	3509.7	3568.8	59.1
30	1850.5	1888.4	37.9	52	3605.3	3665.2	59.9
31	1919.0	1958.0	39.0	53	3703.1	3763.8	60.7
32	1988.2	2028.3	40.1	54	3803.1	3864.6	61.5
33	2058.3	2099.5	41.2	55	3905.7	3968.0	62.3
34	2129.0	2171.4	42.3	56	4010.9	4073.9	63.0
35	2200.8	2244.2	43.4	57	4118.9	4182.6	63.7
36	2273.4	2317.9	44.5	58	4229.8	4294.2	64.4
37	2347.0	2392.6	45.6	59	4344.0	4409.1	65.1
38	2421.6	2468.3	46.7	60	4461.5	4527.3	65.8

D.	Spheroid.	Sphere.	Diff.	D.	Spheroid.	Sphere.	Diff.
61	4582.7	4649.2	66.5	76	7136.2	7210.0	73.8
62	4707.8	4775.0	67.2	77	7393.0	7467.1	74.1
63	4837.1	4904.9	67.8	78	7670.1	7744.5	74.4
64	4971.0	5039.4	68.4	79	7970.9	8045.6	74.7
65	5109.8	5178.8	69.0	80	8300.2	8375.2	75.0
66	5254.0	5323.6	69.6	81	8663.8	8739.0	75.2
67	5403.9	5474.0	70.1	82	9070.0	9145.4	75.4
68	5560.2	5630.8	70.6	83	9530.2	9605.8	75.6
69	5723.5	6794.6	71.1	84	10061.1	10136.9	75.8
70	5894.4	5965.9	71.5	85	10688.7	10764.0	75.9
71	6073.7	6145.5	71.9	86	11456.5	11532.5	76.0
72	6262.4	6334.7	72.3	87	12446.0	12522.1	76.1
73	6461.6	6534.3	73.7	88	13840.4	13916.4	76.0
74	6672.6	6745.7	73.1	89	16223.8	16299.5	75.7
75	6896.8	6970.3	73.5	90	∞	∞	37.75

APPEN-

APPENDIX I.

APPENDIX I.

CONTAINING A

Physico-Mathematical Theory

OF

LUNAR Motions and Irregularities,

OF THE

MOTION of the EARTH'S AXIS,

AND

PRECESSION of the EQUINOXES;

AND THE

Computation of the QUANTITY of Matter, DENSITY, WEIGHT of BODIES, *&c.*

On the SURFACE of the

SUN, EARTH, JUPITER, and *SATURN.*

APPENDIX I.

AS the Subjects treated of in the enſuing Appendix *could not well be brought into the Body of the Book among the* Annotations, *and are the moſt important Part of the* Newtonian Philoſophy, *they could not on any Account be omitted, and therefore I have here annexed them, to complete a Syſtem of that Science. And I have taken ſuch a Method as I hope will be found not only more natural and conciſe, but much more adapted to render thoſe difficult and intricate Ideas eaſy to be apprehended by the intelligent Reader.*

APPENDIX I.

1. THE Motion of the Moon about the Earth is ſimilar to that of the Waters of the Ocean revolving about the Earth's Centre. To ſhew this, ſome things muſt be premiſed; as, firſt, *That the Attraction of the Earth upon any Particle of Water is the ſame as it would be, were the ſame Quantity of Matter contracted into a Point in its Centre.* For let ABGO be the Earth, C its Centre, P a Particle at any Diſtance P A from its Surface; let P G be drawn through P and C, and B O the Diameter of any Circle B D O E, or Section of the Sphere perpendicular to the Axis P G. Plate LXVIII. Fig. 6.

2. Now put $PN = a$, $BP = x$; then $PB^2 - PN^2 = x^2 - a^2 = BN^2$, which is as the Area of the Circle B D O E; the attracting Force whereof is $2xx$, and is proportional to the Quantity of Matter or Number of Particles which act on the Corpuſcle P in the Periphery of the Area, and in

in Directions ſimilar to PB. And ſince the Force of Attraction is as the Number of Particles ($2 x \dot{x}$) multiplied by the Force of each Particle, which is as ſome Power (n) of the Diſtance (x), therefore $2 x \dot{x} \times x^n = 2 \dot{x} x^{n+1}$ will be as the whole or abſolute Force of theſe Particles, that is, in the Directions PB.

3. BUT the Force repreſented by PB is reſolvable into two Forces PN and BN, of which the former only cauſes the Corpuſcle at P to approach the Sphere. Therefore as $PB : PN :: \dot{x} : a :: 2 \dot{x} x^n + 1 : 2 a \dot{x} x^n$, the Force with which the Particle at P is attracted in the Direction PN; the Fluent of which $\frac{2 a x^{n+1}}{n+1}$ (when corrected) is the whole Force of all the Particles in the Area of the Section BDOE, to attract the Corpuſcle P in the Direction PC.

4. I ſay, the Fluent $\frac{2 a x^{n+1}}{n+1}$ muſt be corrected, for it is at preſent too great; becauſe when the Area of the Section becomes a Point, or $x = a$, then this Fluent has the Value $\frac{2 a^{n+2}}{n+1}$, which therefore muſt be deducted from the general Fluent

$\frac{2ax^{n+1}}{n+1}$, and their Difference $\frac{2ax^{n+1}-2a^{n+2}}{n+1}$ or $\frac{ax^{n+1}-a^{n+2}}{n+1} = \frac{PN \times PB^{n+1} - PN^{n+2}}{n+1}$, will be as the Forces of any circular Areas BDOE attracting the Corpuscle P in the Direction of its Axis PC.

5. Now, since in Natural Bodies this Power in any single Particle is *inversely as the Squares of the Distance*, therefore $n = -2$, and so the above Expression of the Force will become $1 - \frac{PN}{PB}$.

6. Now if we put $AC = r$, $PA = c$ $PC = c + r = \frac{b}{2}$, $PB = c + x$, and $PN = y$; then $AG \times AN = 2r \times \overline{y - c} = AO^2$, and $PA^2 + AO^2 + 2PA \times AN = (cc + 2ry - 2rc + 2cy - 2cc =) PO^2 = c^2 + 2cx + x^2$. Hence $2ry + 2cy = 2c^2 + 2rc + 2cx + x^2$, and $y = c + \frac{2cx + x^2}{2c + 2r} = \frac{cb + 2cx + x^2}{b}$ (because $b = 2r + 2c$). And because the Force of Attraction in the circular Plane whose Diameter is BO is $1 - \frac{PN}{PB} = 1 - \frac{cb + 2cx + x^2}{cb + bx} = \frac{2rx + x^2}{b \times \overline{c + x}}$, if we multi-

ply this by the Fluxion of the Diſtance, *viz.* $\dot{y} = \frac{2c\dot{x} + 2x\dot{x}}{b}$, we ſhall have $\frac{4rx\dot{x} + 2x\dot{x}\dot{x}}{bb}$ whoſe Fluent $\frac{2rx^2 + \frac{2}{3}x^3}{bb}$, is proportional to the Attraction of any Segment B O A of the Globe upon the Particle P.

7. HENCE, when $x = 2r$, the Expreſſion will become $\frac{5r^3}{3bb}$ or ſimply $\frac{r^3}{bb}$, for the Attraction of the whole Globe. Whence it appears, that *the attractive Forces of ſpherical Bodies are to one another in a Ratio compounded of their Quantities of Matter directly, and as the Squares of the Diſtances from their Centres inverſely.* And therefore ſince the Number of Particles only, and their Diſtance from the Centre enter the Expreſſion of the Force, it is plain the Effect will be the ſame upon a Corpuſcle P placed any where without the Surface of the Globe, as if the whole Maſs of Matter were contracted into a Point at its Centre. *Q. E. D.*

8. To apply this: If all the Matter of the Earth were contracted into the Centre, and the Waters of the Ocean were to continue their diurnal Rotation the ſame as they now do, they would then be affected in the ſame Manner by the Earth and Moon

Moon as they now are, and have all the ſame Phænomena. And therefore if a Body, inſtead of revolving at the Diſtance of the Earth's Surface about its Centre, were to revolve at the Diſtance of the Moon, every thing would happen in a ſimilar Manner, and the Effects of the Earth and Sun in diſturbing the Motion of the Satellite would be like thoſe which are produced in the Motion of the Water by the Earth and Moon, but only in a leſs Degree.

9. ANOTHER Thing to be premiſed is, that the Moon revolves not about the Centre of the Earth as the Centre of its Motion; and therefore in order to conſider its Motion in the beſt Manner, we muſt determine the Diſtance to which the Moon muſt be removed from the Centre of the Earth at Reſt, (and conſidered as the Centre of its Motion) that it may revolve about it in the ſame periodical Time that it takes up now, together with the Earth, in revolving about the common *Centre of Gravity*. See *Annot.* XXXVI.

10. IN order to this, let D be the Diſtance of the Moon from the common Centre of Gravity, and d that of the Earth from it; then will $D + d$ be the Diſtance of the

Moon from the Earth, which, at a Mean, is $60\frac{1}{2}$ Semidiameters. Now let x = Distance required; then becauſe the attracting Forces (F and f) in any two different Diſtances are as the Squares of thoſe Diſtances inverſely, we have $F : f :: x^2 : \overline{D+d}^2$. Again, becauſe the Periodical Time is given, or the ſame in both Caſes, we have the Forces proportional to the Diſtances from the Centres of Motion; (See *Annot.* XXXIV.) therefore $F : f :: D : x$. Conſequently $D : x :: x^2 : \overline{D+d}^2$, therefore $x^3 = \overline{D+d}^2 \times D$; and multiplying by $D+d$, we have $x^3 \times \overline{D+d} = \overline{D+d}^3 \times D$; whence $D+d : D :: \overline{D+d}^3 : x^3$; therefore $\sqrt[3]{\overline{D+d}} : \sqrt[3]{\overline{D}} :: D+d : x$. But $D \quad d : D$ :: the Quantity of Matter in the Earth and Moon together: the Quantity of Matter in the Earth alone; that is, as 40,31 to 39,31. Whence $\sqrt[3]{40,31} : \sqrt[3]{39,31} :: 60,5 : 60 = x$, *the Diſtance at which the Moon would revolve about the Earth at Reſt in the ſame Time it now does.*

Plate LXVIII. Fig. 7.

II. THESE Things premiſed, let S be the Sun, T the Earth, and P a Satellite revolving about it, and let S K be the Mean Diſtance of the Satellite or Moon from the Sun; and expound the accelerative Force, by

by which it is attracted towards the Sun S. And take $SL : SK :: SK^2 : SP^2$, and $Sl : Sk :: S^2k : Sp^3$; then ſhall SL, or Sl, expound the accelerative Attraction in any Diſtance of the Satellite SP or Sp. That is, the Force at P is to the Force at p as $6L$ is to Sl; for $SK = Sk$, and $SK^3 = SL \times SP^2 = Sl \times Sp^2$; therefore $SL : Sl :: Sp^2 : SP^2$.

12. JOIN PT and pT, and draw parallel thereto the Lines LM and lm, meeting ST in M and m. And the Attraction SL, Sl, is reſolvable into two others SM and LM, and Sm and lm. Hence the Body P is urged with a *Threefold* Force; *viz.* (1.) That by which it is attracted or tends towards T, ariſing from the mutual Attraction of the Bodies T and P. (2.) The Force LM, or lm, by which it is likewiſe urged towards T. (3.) The Force SM, Sm, by which it is urged towards S, or attracted in Directions always parallel to ST. Plate LXVIII. Fig. 8.

13. By the firſt of theſe Forces the Satellite ought to deſcribe an Ellipſis about T in one of its *Foci*, and therefore Areas proportional to the Time, as is evident from what was demonſtrated in *Annotat.* CXL. This is upon Suppoſition the Body T was

fixed; but the Case is the same, supposing it moveable with the Body P about a common Centre (which is really the Case of the *Earth* and *Moon*) as Sir *Isaac Newton* has shewn in *Theor.* xx. and xxi. *Lib.* i. of the *Principia*.

14. THE second Force L M, as it conspires to impel the Body in the Direction P T, is to be added to the former, and causes that the Body shall still describe *Areas proportional to the Time*. But because this Force is not in the inverse Ratio of the Square of the Distance, it will, compounded with the former, cause the Curve which the Satellite describes to deviate from an *Elliptic Form*, and the more so, *cæteris paribus*, the greater the Proportion is which this Force bears to the former. These Forces L M, *l m*, have been shewn (*Annot.* LXXXIV. 9.) to be as $\frac{PT}{SP^3}$ and $\frac{pT}{Sp^3}$; and therefore increase and decrease with the Distance P T or *p* T.

15. LASTLY; the third Force S M impelling the Body P in Directions parallel to T S, will compound a Force with the former two, that is not directed from P to T, and so will cause that the Body P shall no longer *describe Areas proportional to the Times*

(as

(as we have ſhewn). It will alſo augment the Aberration of the Orbit from an Elliptic Form, on a double Account, *viz.* both becauſe it is not directed from P to T, and alſo becauſe it is not inverſely as the Square of the Diſtance P T. For the Forces S M : S m :: $\frac{1}{SP^3}$: $\frac{1}{Sp^3}$ :: S p^3 : S P^3. Theſe Errors therefore are leaſt of all when the ſecond and third Forces (eſpecially the third) are ſo, the firſt Force remaining the ſame.

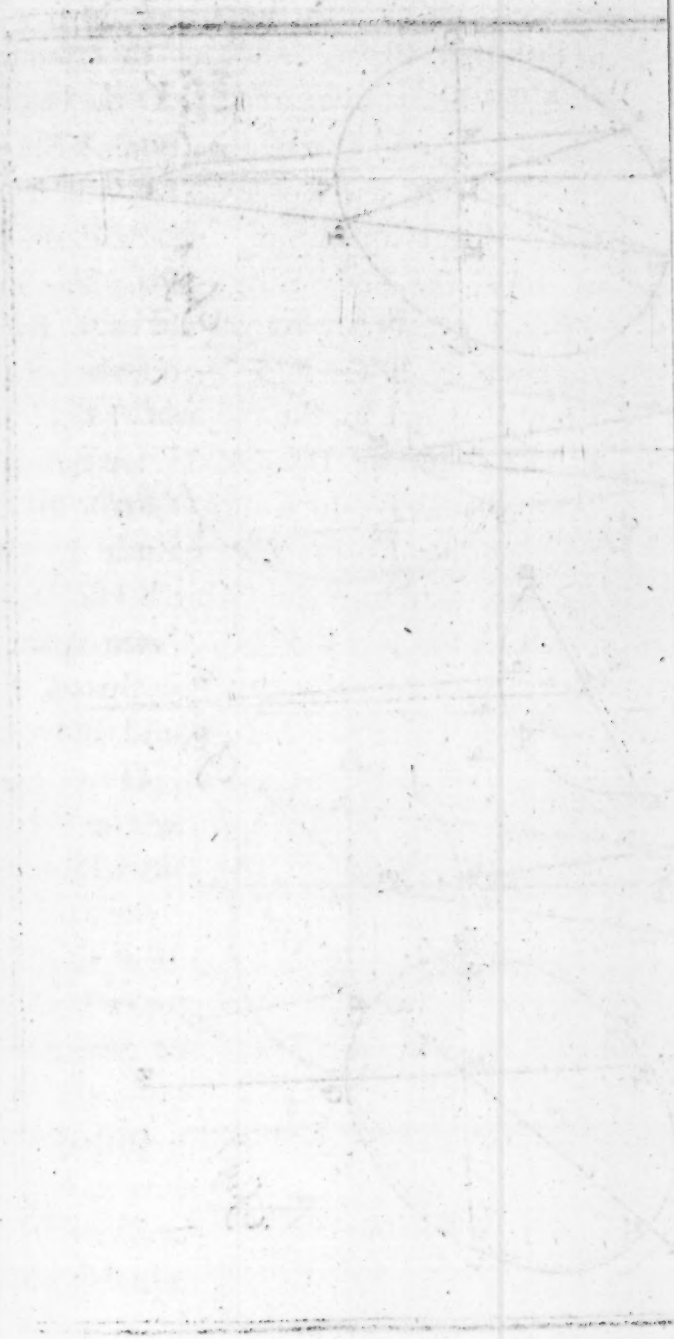
16. LET S N expound the Force by which the Body T is accelerated towards S; then if the Forces S M and S N are equal, they, by attracting the Bodies T and P equally, and in parallel Lines, will cauſe no Alteration in their Site or Poſitions in reſpect of each other. But when the Force S M is greater, or S m leſſer than the Force S N, the Difference N M, or N m, will be that alone by which the Proportionality of the Times and Areas, and alſo the Elliptic Form of the Orbit, will be diſturbed. Hence when N M or N m is nothing, or leaſt of all, the aforeſaid Perturbations will vaniſh, that is, when the Body P is nearly in the Points C and D of its Orbit.

17. WE have hitherto ſuppoſed the Body P revolving about T in the ſame Plane (Plate LXVIII. Fig. 9.)

with S; let us now ſuppoſe it to revolve in a different Plane, and let the Semi-Orbit C A D be above, and C D B below the Plane, in which are the Bodies S and T. In this caſe the Force L M will have the ſame Effect as before, *viz.* will only tend or impel the Body P from P to T. But the other Force N M, by acting in a Direction parallel to S T, and therefore (when the Body P is not in the Nodes C, D,) inclined to the Plane of the Orbit P A B, will, beſides the above-mentioned Error in Longitude, induce an Error in Latitude, or diſturb the Inclination of the Orbit.

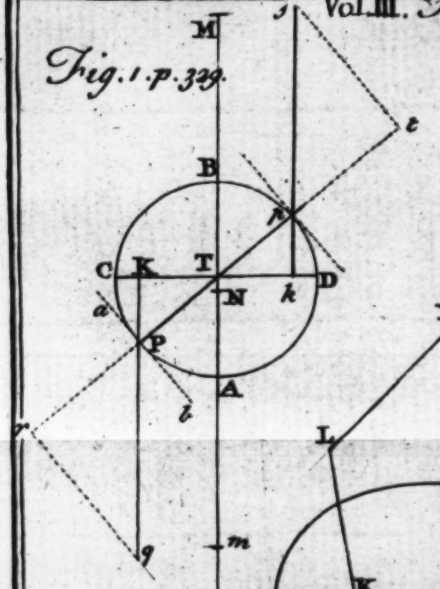
18. FOR let P *q* be drawn parallel to N M, and let P *p* be the Space through which the Satellite P would move in its Orbit in a ſmall Particle of Time, excluſive of the Force N M; and by the Force N M alone ſuppoſe it in the ſame Time moved through the Space P *r*; then compleating the Parallelogram P *r s p*, and drawing the Diagonal P *s*, that will repreſent the real Motion, and *s* the true Place of the Satellite at the End of the ſaid Time: But 'tis evident the *Lineola* P *s* is not in the Plane of the Orbit C A D.

19. HENCE it follows, that by the Force N M the Body P will be accelerated in its



Vol. III. *Plate* LXIX. *P.* 329.

Fig. 1. *p.* 329.



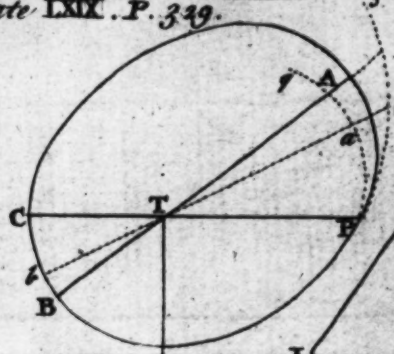


Fig. 2. *p.* 334.

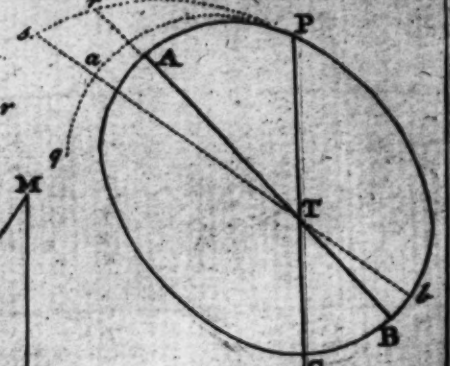
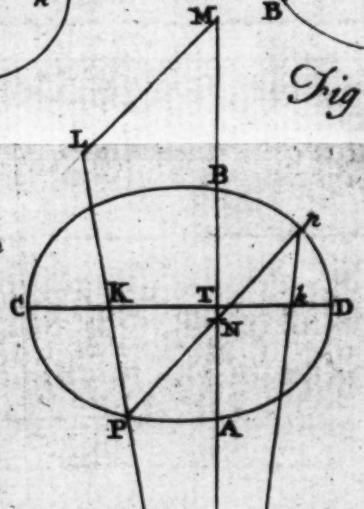


Fig. 3. *p.* 334.



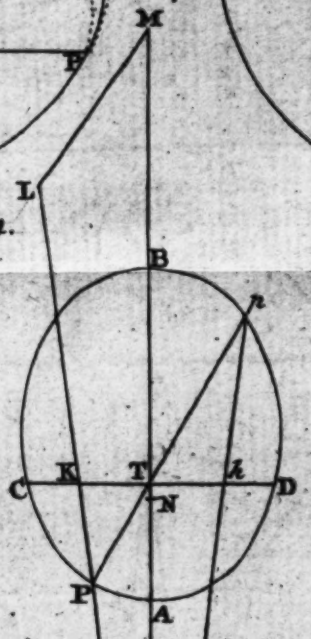


Fig: 6.

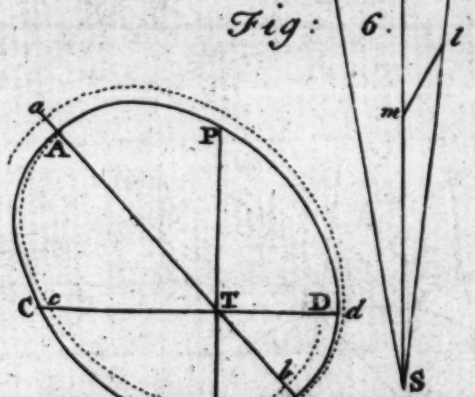


Fig. 5

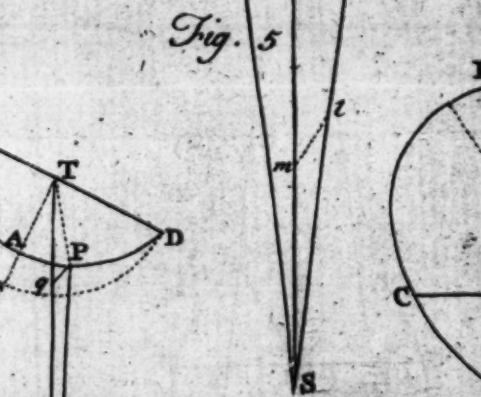


Fig. 7.

Fig. 8.

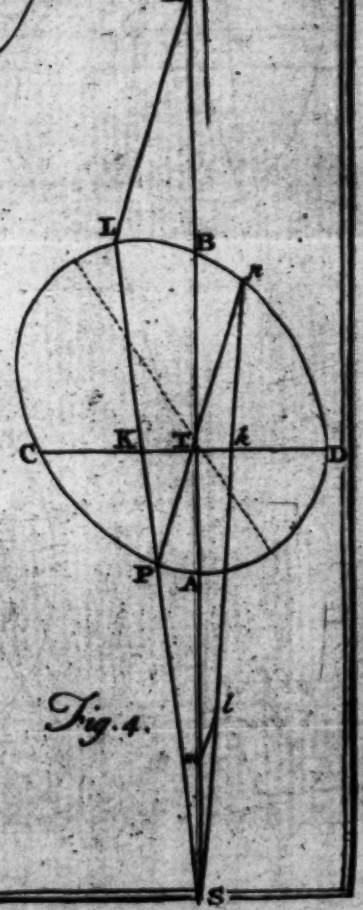


Fig. 4.

Motion from C to A, and from D to B, and retarded as it paſſes from A to D, and from B to C. For let P *q* be drawn parallel to N M, and expound that Force, then continuing T P to *r*, and drawing *q r* perpendicular thereto, the Force P *q* becomes reſolved into the two Forces *r* P and *r q*; of which the former, acting in the Direction P T, does not diſturb the Planet's Motion in Longitude, nor the equable Deſcription of Areas: But the other Part *r q*, acting in the Direction *r q*, conſpires with the Motion of the Satellite P in its Orbit, (as being parallel to the Tangent *a b*) and therefore accelerates its Motion in Longitude. By the ſame way of reaſoning, by making the like Conſtruction between A and D it will appear that the Motion of the Satellite will be there retarded, the Force *r q* being on that Side in a contrary Direction. Plate LXIX. Fig. 1.

20. AGAIN, as the Planet paſſes from D to B, it will be again accelerated; for let *p s* here expreſs the Force N *m*, which is now negative, or acts in a contrary Direction to the former N M, that is, from *p* to *s*, ſuppoſing *p s* parallel to N *m*; for then *t s* conſpires with the Motion of the Planet in the Direction of the Tangent *c d*. In the ſame Manner it is ſhewn the Planet is retarded

retarded in going from B to C, by the contrary Direction of *t s*.

21. HENCE alſo it appears, that ſince the Body P is conſtantly accelerated from C to A, and from D to B, the Velocity of the Satellite will be greater in the Points A and B *(cæteris paribus)* than in the Points C and D.

22. THE Orbit alſo will *(cæteris paribus)* be more convex in C and D than in the Points A and B; for the ſwifter Bodies move, the leſs they deflect from a Right-Line Courſe in a given Time. Moreover, in the Points A and B, the Force L M and N M are directly contrary to each other, and their Difference N M — L M = K L, will be as the Force which draws the Body from T towards S; and ſince this Force K L is greater when the Body is at A, than when at C or D, the Body will there be leſs urged towards T, and ſo will leſs deflect from a Right Line. The ſame may be ſhewn when the Body is in the Point B by the Force *k l*. See *Annot.* LXXXIV. 20.

23. WHENCE the Body P will *(cæteris paribus)* recede farther from T in the Points C and D than at A and B; as is eaſy to obſerve from the Figure of the Orbit, which is leſs curved, and therefore nearer to T at A and

A and B, than at C and D. What is here ſaid is upon Suppoſition that the Orbit (excluſive of the perturbating Forces) is a *Circle*, and not an *Ellipſis*, which Caſe will be conſidered by and by.

24. BECAUSE the centripetal Force of the central Body T, by which the Body P is retain'd in its Orbit, is augmented in the Points C and D by the addititious Force L M, and diminiſhed in the Points A and B by the Force K L; and becauſe K L is always greater than L M from C to A (and double thereto at A: See *Annot.* LXXXIV. 20, 21, 22.) and from A to D, (where it becomes equal to it) therefore the centripetal Force (F) is upon the whole diminiſhed by the Action of the Body S. And becauſe $F : \frac{a}{P^2}$, (by *Annotat.* XXXIV. 6.) therefore the Radius T P (*a*) remaining the ſame, the Periodical Time (P) of the Planet will be augmented by the Action of the Power K L; and becauſe in that Caſe $P : \frac{1}{\sqrt{F}}$, it appears the Periodical time will be increaſed in the *Subduplicate Ratio* by which the Force F is decreaſed.

25. AGAIN, ſuppoſing the centripetal Force F to remain the ſame, (as we may when

when K L is very ſmall with reſpect to it, *Annotat.* LXXXIV. 22.) then however the Diſtance P T (*a*) may vary, we have $rP^2 : a^3$, or $P : a\sqrt{a}$. Therefore when neither the Diſtance (*a*) nor the centripetal Force F are conſtant, we have $P : \frac{a\sqrt{a}}{\sqrt{F}}$: $\sqrt{\frac{a^3}{F}}$; that is, the Periodical Time (P) will be in a Ratio compounded of the Seſquiplicate Ratio of the Diſtance $\sqrt{a^3}$, and the Ratio $\frac{1}{\sqrt{F}}$, which is ſubduplicate of that by which the central Force F is increaſed or diminiſhed by the Decreaſe or Increaſe of the Action of the diſtant Body S.

26. FROM what has been ſaid, it follows alſo, that the Axis of the Ellipſis deſcribed by the Body P, or Line of the *Apſides*, has an angular Motion backwards and forwards by Turns, but its *Progreſs* exceeds the *Regreſs*; and by that Exceſs it is upon the whole carried forwards, or *in Conſequentia*. For the Force by which the Body P is urged towards T in the Points C and D, where the Force M V vaniſhes, is compounded of the Force L M, and the centripetal

tripetal Force or Attraction of the Body T. The former Force LM, if the Diſtance PT be increaſed, increaſes nearly in the ſame Ratio; and the latter Force (F) is inverſely as the Square of that Diſtance, *viz.* as $\frac{1}{PT^2}$; wherefore the whole Force is as $PT + \frac{1}{PT^2}$.

27. Now $F : TP + \frac{1}{PT^2}$ is a leſs Ratio than $F : \frac{1}{PT^2}$. For Example: Let the Ellipſis (when the Satellite is in the Quadratures) be APB, and the Axis be AB; the Diſtances from the central Body T let be PT : CT :: 6 : 5; then the centripetal Force at P will be to that at C as 25 to 36; but the additional Force (LM) at P is as PT = 6, and at C as TC = 5; therefore the compound Forces at P and C are as 25 + 6 : 36 + 5; or as 31 to 41, which is a leſs Ratio than 25 : 36. For as 25 : 36 :: 31 : $\frac{36 \times 31}{25} = 44{,}64$. But the Ratio 31 : 41 is leſs than the Ratio 31 : 44,64.

28. HENCE, ſince when the Force at P is as $\frac{P}{PT^2}$, the Planet deſcribes an *Ellipſis* PAB;

Plate LXIX. Fig. 2. P A B; and when the ſaid Force is as $\frac{1}{PT^3}$, the Curve is the *Equiangular Spiral* P *s*, (by *Annot.* CXL.) 'tis evident the Satellite will with a Force as $PT + \frac{1}{PT^3}$, deſcribe an Oval P *a q* ſtill more curved than the Ellipſis, and therefore will lie within it. Now were the Planet P to ſet out from any Point P (in which the Radius T P cuts all the three Curves in one common oblique Angle) and to proceed firſt in the Spiral Path from P towards *s*, the Radius T P would conſtantly interſect the ſaid Curve in the ſame Angle as at P. But ſecondly, if it proceeded in the Elliptic Arch from P towards A, the Angle T P A would continually be alter-

Fig. 3. ing and approaching nearer to a Right Angle, which it would make when it arrived in the Point A. Laſtly, if it ſet out in the Oval P *a q*, the ſaid Angle T P *q* would alter much faſter, and approach more quickly to a Right Angle, which happens in the Point *a*, becauſe of its greater Curvity, or Deviation from the Spiral P *s*.

29. THEREFORE by this compound Force the higheſt Apſis A will be removed backwards to *a*, or the Axis of the Ellipſis A B will

will recede into the Position *a b*; and this will be the Case every Time the Line of the Apsides comes into Square with the Sun.

30. ON the other hand, when the Satellite is in the Syzygical Line C P it is urged with a Force in the lower Apsis C, which is equal to the Difference between the centripetal Force and that expressed by K L; and in the upper Apsis it is equal to the Difference between the central Force and *k l*; which *k l* is as P T or A T, as being double thereof; therefore the compound Force about the upper Apsis is as $\frac{1}{PT^3}$ — P T, which is a greater Ratio than that of F : $\frac{1}{PT^3}$; or, in Numbers, 25 — 6 : 36 — 5 :: 19 : 31. But 19 : 31 is a greater Ratio than 25 to 36; whence the Path of the Satellite P *a q* is not so much curved as the Ellipsis P A B, and therefore lies between it and the Spiral P *r s*; and therefore as the Radius moves from P towards A, it sooner makes a Right Angle with the Ellipse at A, than with the Oval P *a q*, which happens at *a*. The Line of the Apsides A B therefore goes forwards in this Case, and becomes *a b*.

31. AND

31. AND becauſe the ablatitious Part *kl* is twice as great as the additititious Part *lm* for the upper Apſis, and K L = 2 L M for the lower; therefore the Ratio of the compound Forces, which is greater than the Ratio of the Squares of the Diſtances inverſely, will upon the whole prevail, and cauſe a progreſſive angular Motion of the Line of the Apſides.

32. HENCE 'tis evident there is a certain Point between the Quadratures and Syzygies, where the Apſides are quieſcent; to find which, let P be the Place of the Satellite in the Apſis required; through P draw P *q* equal and parallel to N M or T M, and produce it to K, then is P *q* = 3 P K. (*Annot.* LXXXIV. 21.) From *q* let fall the Perpendicular *q r* upon P T produced, and the Force P *q* is reſolved into two others P *r* and *q r*; of which *q r*, by acting perpendicularly to the Radius, does neither accelerate nor retard the Motion of P towards T; but the other Part P *r*, acting directly contrary thereto from P towards *r*, diminiſhes the central Force of P towards T. But the Force L M or P T augments it; the Point therefore where P *r* = P T is that required. Now becauſe of ſimilar Triangles T P K and *q* P *r*, we have P T : P K

PK :: Pq (= 3 PK) : Pr = PT, in the Caſe propoſed. Therefore $3PK^4 = PT^4$; whence $PT : PK :: \sqrt{3} : 1$.

33. HENCE we have this Analogy; As $\sqrt{3} : 1$ :: Radius PT : Sine PK of the Arch CP = 35° 16′. The Point, then, where the central Force is neither increaſed nor diminiſhed by the Force of the Sun, and conſequently where the Apſides are at Reſt, is at 35° 16′ on each ſide the Quadratures, or at 54° 44′ from the Syzygies on each Side; ſo that the Apſides do in each Revolution of the Planet *(cæteris paribus)* go backwards through 141° 4′, and forwards through 218° 56′.

34. SINCE the Progreſs or Regreſs of the Apſides depends on the Decrement of the central Force in a greater or leſſer Ratio than that which is duplicate of the Diſtance in going from the lower Apſis A to the upper one B, and alſo on a ſimilar Increment in returning from B to A, and is therefore greateſt when this Proportion of the Force in the upper Apſis to that in the lower Apſis does moſt of all recede from the inverſe duplicate Ratio of the Diſtances; it is evident that the Apſides in their Syzygies by the ablative Force KL

Plate LXIX. Fig. 4.

will go forwards more ſwiftly, and more ſlowly in their Quadratures by the additious Force L M.

35. FOR let the abſolute Force of Attraction in T be $= a$, then becauſe this is every where in the Ratio of $\frac{1}{PT^2}$ at the Body P, the Force by which the Body P is attracted towards T will be as $\frac{a}{PT^2}$. Again, if the Satellite P be within 54 Degrees of the Syzygies A or B, its Force is diſturbed by an extraneous Force (b), which is every where as K L or kl; therefore this perturbating Force is $b \times$ K L, or $b \times kl$; ſo that the Force upon P in the Points P and p (within that Limit) is every where in the Ratio of $\frac{a}{PT^2} - b \times$ K L to $\frac{a}{pT^2} - b \times kl$; which Ratio, when P is in the Points A and B, becomes $\frac{a}{AT^2} - b \times$ A T to $\frac{a}{BT^2} - b \times$ B T, (becauſe then K L : kl :: A T : p T, and T P = A T, and p T = B T, as has been ſhewn.) Now this reduced to a common Denomination is $\frac{TB^3 \times a - b \times AT^3}{AT^2 \times a - b \times TB^3}$ to

36. Now

36. Now this Ratio recedes ſo much the more from the Ratio of TB^3 to AT^3, or $\frac{1}{AT^3}$ to $\frac{1}{TB^3}$, by how much $\overline{a-b} \times AT^3$ recedes from an Equality with $\overline{a-b} \times TB^3$, or by how much AT is leſs than TB; that is, when the Line of the Apſides is in the Syzygies as in *Fig.* 5. In this Poſition therefore the Apſides will go forwards ſwifter than in any other. Plate LXIX.

BUT when (in this Caſe) the Body P is in the Quadratures C and D, the additional Force L M becoming equal to CT = TD, and CT + TD being here leſs than in any other Situation of the Apſides, (as *Fig.* 4.) from the Nature of an Ellipſis, therefore the Ratio or Quantity of the perturbating Force thence ariſing will be leaſt of all; and conſequently the Apſides will recede ſlower in this than in any other Situation. Hence, upon the Whole, the Exceſs in the Progreſs of the Apſides will in this Situation be greater than in any other.

38. IF the Line of the Apſides be ſituated in the Quadratures, then for juſt contrary Cauſes the contrary Phænomena will happen; that is, they will recede moſt ſwiftly when the Satellite is in the Quadra- Fig. 6.

tures, and proceed moſt ſlowly when it is in the Syzygies. So that in this Caſe the Regreſs might exceed the Progreſs, and the Apſides upon the Whole be moved *in Antecedentia*, were it not that the Force K L, by which they go forwards at A, is near twice as great as L M, by which they go backwards when the Body is at C. See *Art.* 24.

39. THE Exceſs of the progreſſive above the regreſſive Motion of the Apſides will be augmented, if the Bodies P and S move both towards the ſame Parts; for then the Apſides will continue a longer Time in and near the Syzygies, than if the Body S were fixed: And on the contrary, as their Motion would be contrary to that of S when P is in the Quadratures, ſo the Time of the Regreſs will be ſhorter; therefore the Time by which they go forwards will, upon the Whole, be from hence very much increaſed.

40. FROM what we have demonſtrated (*Art.* 28, 29, 30.) it is evident, that if a Body in deſcending from the upper to the lower Apſis be urged by a centripetal Force, which increaſes more than in a duplicate Ratio of the diminiſhed Diſtance from the Centre, it will deſcribe a Curve A *c b* interior

Plate LXIX. Fig. 7.

rior to the Ellipſe A C B, and conſequently more eccentric, inaſmuch as the Ratio of T B to T A is increaſed by being changed to the Ratio of T *b* to T A.

41. ON the contrary, if a Body ſets out from the lower Apſis B towards the upper A, and is attracted every where with a Force that decreaſes more than in the duplicate Ratio of the increaſing Diſtance; then, being leſs attracted than it would be in the Ellipſe, it will deſcribe an Orbit exterior to the Ellipſe, as B *d a*; which alſo is more eccentric than the Ellipſe, becauſe T *a* to T B is a greater Ratio than T A to T B.

42. BY the ſame Way of Reaſoning we ſhew, that if in the Deſcent the Force be increaſed in a Ratio leſs than that of the Square of the diminiſhed Diſtance, or in the Aſcent it be diminiſhed in a Ratio leſs than the Square of the increaſed Diſtance, the Orbit deſcribed will be leſs eccentric than the Ellipſe.

43. THEREFORE when the Satellite P is in the Quadratures C and D, if the abſolute central Force be to the abſolute additional Force as *a* to *n*, we ſhall have the whole Forces at C and D, in the Ratio of

$\frac{a}{CT^2} + n \times CT$ to $\frac{a}{TD^2} + n \times TD$; which is as $\overline{TD^2 \times a + n \times CT^3}$ to $\overline{TC^2 \times a + n \times TD^3}$. But this is a leſs Ratio than that of TD^2 to TC^2, becauſe CT is greater than TD. Therefore in that Part of the Orbit where the addititious Force LM takes place, the Eccentricity will be diminiſhed, by *Art.* 42.

44. AGAIN; ſuppoſing the Satellite in the Syzygies PQ, then the Force in Q will be to that at P as $\overline{TP^2 \times a - b \times TQ^3}$ to $\overline{TQ^2 \times a - b \times TP^3}$, which Ratio is greater than that of TP^2 to TQ^2, becauſe TQ is leſs than TP; wherefore in and near the Syzygies the *Eccentricity* of the Orbit will be increaſed, (by *Art.* 40, 41.) The Eccentricity therefore of the Orbit will be twice changed in every Revolution of the Satellite.

Plate LXIX. Fig. 6.

45. IF the Apſides be ſituated in the Quadratures, then, becauſe the Ratio of TD to TC is greateſt of all, the Eccentricity of the Orbit will be leaſt of all, (*Art.* 43.) Again; when the Apſides are in the Syzygies, the Eccentricity is the greateſt of all for the ſame Reaſon, *viz.* the greateſt Diſparity of A T and T B. Hence the

Fig. 5.

Eccentricity

Eccentricity of the Orbit is continually increaſing as the Aplides paſs from the Quadratures to the Syzygies, and *vice verſa*.

46. IT has been already ſhewn, (*Art.* 17, 18.) that if the Plane of the Satellite's Orbit be inclined to the Plane in which are the Bodies S and T, the Motion of the Satellite in Latitude will in no wiſe be diſturbed by the Part L M of the extraneous Force, but only by the other Part N M, and not by that neither when the Nodes are in the Syzygies; but when they are in the Quadratures this Perturbation is greateſt of all.

47. FOR let P be the Satellite in its Orbit C A D, inclined to the immoveable Plane C F D in any Angle A D F; and let P S expound the Force of the Body S, attracting the Satellite in the Direction P S. From P let fall the Perpendicular P *q* to the Plane C F D, and draw the Right Line T *q* S; then the Force P S is reſolvable into the Forces S *q* and P *q*; of which the former, being in the ſaid Plane C F D, does not diſturb the Satellite's Motion in Latitude; but the other Force P *q*, being perpendicular to the Plane C F D, is wholly ſpent in drawing the Satellite from its Orbit C A D towards it, and therefore is propontional

Plate LXIX. Fig. 8.

to the Force by which the Motion in Latitude is diſturbed. But the Force P *q* is evidently greateſt when S T D is a Right Angle, and is nothing when that Angle vaniſhes.

48. WHEN the Nodes are in the Quadratures C, D, as the Satellite P paſſes from the Quadratures to the Syzygies the Inclination of the Orbit is diminiſhed, and it is increaſed in going from the Syzygies to the Quadratures. For let P *q* (as before) repreſent the extraneous Force N M, and the Direction of its Action; we have ſhewn that the Body P will deſcribe the *Lineola* P *s* in a ſmall Particle of Time by the compound Force, which *Lineola* P *s* is not in the Plane of the Orbit C P D, but deflects from it towards P *q*; ſo that the Satellite really moves in the Plane T P *s*, which produced will not meet the Plane E C F in C, but in another Point *c*, toward the Oppoſition B.

Plate LXX. Fig. 1.

49. FOR with the Radius T P deſcribe the Circle E C F D in the fixed Plane paſſing through T and S, and in the Plane T P *s* the Arch of a Circle P *c* interſecting the other in *c*. Now becauſe the Force N M is very ſmall, compared with the central Force, therefore the Angle C P *c*, the

Inclination

Plate LXX. P. 512.

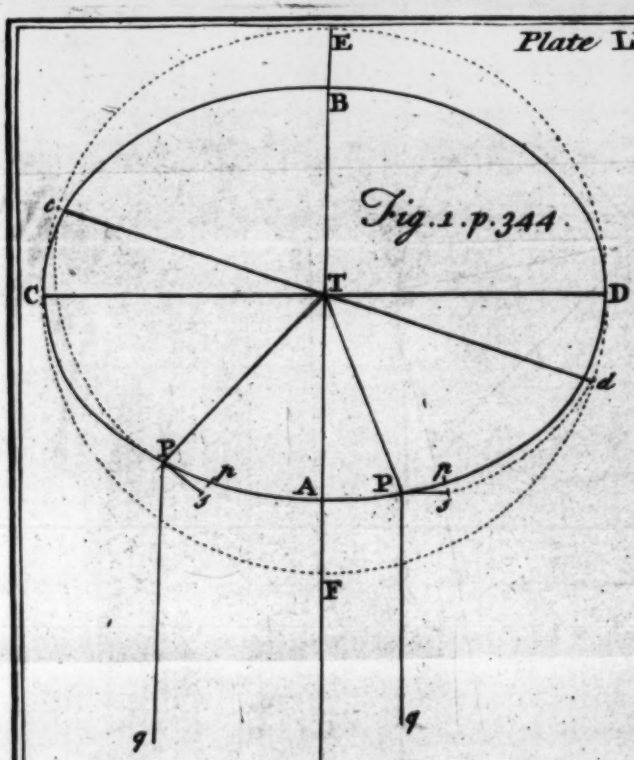


Fig. 1. p. 344.

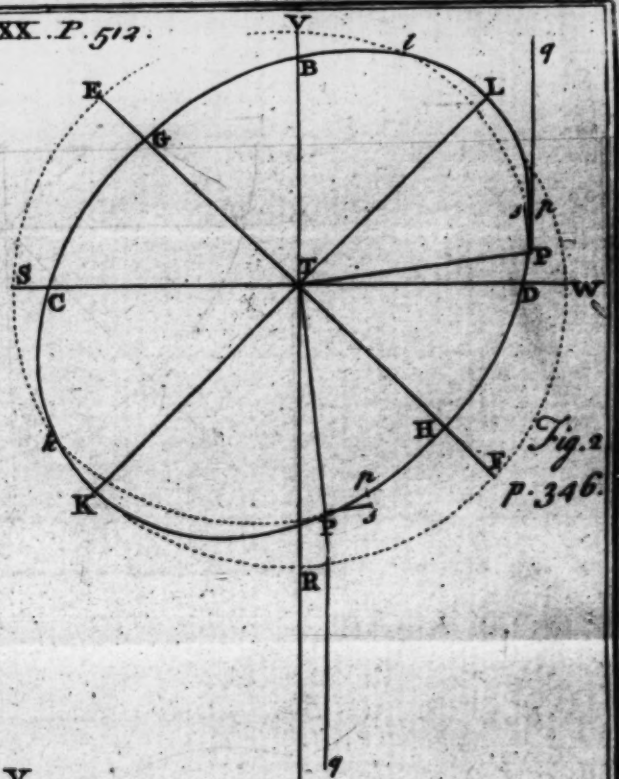
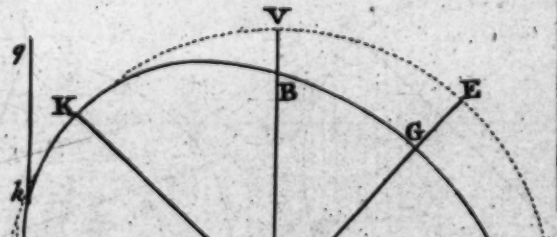


Fig. 2 p. 346.



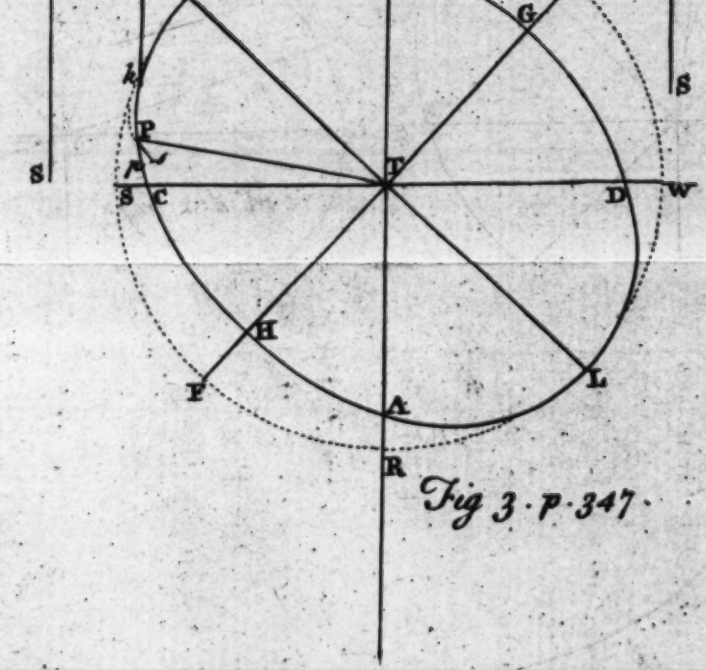


Fig 3 · p · 347 ·

Inclination of the Planes CPT and *c*sT, is exceeding ſmall, and the Arch C*c* an infiniteſimal Quantity; therefore ſince PA is a finite Quantity, the Sum of the two Arches PC + P*c* is leſs than CA + AD, or a Semicircle; and hence in the ſpherical Triangle CP*c* the external Angle PCF is greater than the internal oppoſite Angle P*c*C. (See my *Young Trigonometer's Guide*, Vol. II.) That is, the Inclination of the Plane CAD to the Plane CFD is greater than the Inclination of the Plane *c*PT thereto; which was the firſt Thing to be ſhewn.

50. IN like Manner we prove, that as the Body P goes from the Conjunction A to the Quadrature D, the Inclination of the Orbit will be increaſed; for if, in this Caſe, through the Points P and *s* we deſcribe an Arch of a Circle in the Plane TP*s*, the ſaid Arch P*sd* will meet the Plane CFD in the Point *d* between F and D; and the exterior Angle P*d*F, the new Inclination of its Orbit, will be greater than the interior oppoſite Angle PDF, which was the Inclination when the Satellite was at A; which was the ſecond thing to be ſhewn.

51. HENCE 'tis evident, that in this Situation of the Nodes the Inclination of the Orbit

Orbit is leaſt of all when the Satellite is in the Syzygies at A, and that it returns to its former Magnitude at the next Node; for the ſame Things are in the ſame Manner ſhewn when the Satellite paſſes through the remoter Part of its Orbit D B C.

52. HENCE alſo the Nodes in this Situation have a *retrograde Motion*, or are carried backwards from the Site D C to *dc*, in half a Revolution of the Satellite; and they recede as much more during the other Half-Revolution.

Plate LXX. Fig. 2.

53. IF the Nodes K, L, are in the Octants after the Quadratures C and D, then (1.) The Inclination of the Plane will be conſtantly diminiſhed in paſſing from the Node K to the 90th Degree at H or G. (2.) It will be increaſed during the Motion from that Point to the next Quadrature D or C. (3.) During both theſe Tranſits, or the Motion from K to D, or from L to C, the Nodes go backwards. (4.) In paſſing from the Quadratures to the next Node the Inclination of the Orbit is diminiſhed, and the Nodes go forwards. The firſt, ſecond, and third are ſhewn as before, (*Art.* 49—52.) and the fourth is thus demonſtrated.

54. WHEN the Satellite P has paſs'd the Quadrature D, the Power N M becomes negative,

negative, or acts in a contrary Direction with reſpect to T, and hence the *Lineola* P *s* deſcribed by the compound Motion deflects from the Arch of the Orbit P *p* towards the Side B A; therefore 'tis plain, the Arch of a Circle P *s l*, deſcribed with the Radius T P in the Plane T P *s*, will meet the Circle F L B in a Point *l* between L and B; then, as before, we ſhew the Angle P *l* F is leſs than the Angle P L F; and the Node L has, during the Motion through D *l*, gone forwards to *l*. The ſame Things happen in the Tranſit from C to K.

55. FROM what we have demonſtrated it appears, that during the whole Tranſit from the Node K to the Node L, the Inclination of the Orbit is more diminiſhed than increaſed, and the ſame Thing happens on the other Side in going from L to K; therefore the Inclination is always leſs in the ſubſequent than in the preceding Node. And this will be the Caſe, more or leſs, wherever the Node K is placed between R and S.

56. WHEN the Nodes are in the other Octants, *viz.* between S and V, and R and W; then, (1.) While the Body P is paſſing from the Node to the next Quadrature, Plate LXX. Fig. 3.

ture, the Inclination of the Orbit is increaſed, and the Nodes go forwards. (2.) In paſſing from the Quadrature to the 90th Degree from the Node H or G, the Inclination is diminiſhed, and the Nodes go backwards. (3.) In paſſing from thence to the next Node, the Inclination is increaſed, and the Nodes ſtill go backwards. The ſecond and third are demonſtrated altogether as before, (*Art.* 49.) and the firſt is thus ſhewn.

57. THE Satellite being at P, between K and G, the Direction of the Force N M is that of P *q*; whence the *Lineola*, P *s*, deſcribed by the compound Force, will deflect from the Arch P *p* of the Orbit towards the Side V R; and conſequently a circular Arch deſcribed on the Centre T through the Points *s* and P, in the Plane T *s* P, will meet the primitive Circle V S R in a Point *k* between K and S. Therefore the Angle *s k* F is greater than the Angle P K F; and the Node K is carried *in Conſequentia* from K to *k*. The ſame Thing is ſhewn for the other Part of the Orbit L G K.

58. HENCE it appears, that ſince the Nodes go forwards only while the Satellite is between the Node and the next Quadrature,

ture, and backwards while it paſſes from thence to the next Node, *the Nodes in each Revolution go backwards more than forwards*; and therefore, upon the Whole, *the Motion of the Nodes is abſolutely backwards*, unleſs they happen to be in the Syzygies, where they are quieſcent; becauſe in that Caſe the Motion in Latitude is not at all diſturbed by the Force N M, and conſequently where the Inclination of the Orbit is the greateſt of all. (See *Art.* 46.)

59. ALL the Errors in the Satellite's Motion hitherto deſcribed are a little greater in the Conjunction of the Bodies P and S, than in their Oppoſition; becauſe the generating Forces N M and L M in the former Caſe are greater than N *m* and *l m* in the latter; as we have ſhewn in *Annotation* LXXXIV. *Art.* 9, 10, 11, 12. Alſo it is there ſhewn, that each of the diſturbing Forces N M and L M is inverſely as the Cube of the Diſtance, and therefore become greater than the Diſtance S T is leſs, viz. *in Perihelio*, and leſs as the Diſtance increaſes, viz. *in Aphelio*.

60. OF theſe diſturbing Forces, ſince N M is near twice as great as L M, therefore the Diminution of the central Force will exceed its Augmentation doubly; and ſo,

ſo, upon the Whole, the Satellite P will be leſs attracted towards T by the joint Forces of S and T, than by the Body T alone; conſequently the Satellite deſcribes a larger Orbit, and its Period of Revolution is greater.

61. IN all that has been ſaid, if S be the Sun, T the Earth, and P the Moon, the Theory of the Lunar Motions and Irregularities is contained in the foregoing Articles. And as this Theory reſults from the Laws of Attraction, and was firſt excogitated by Sir *Iſaac Newton* by reaſoning *à Priori*; ſo it is found no leſs conſonant to the Experience and Obſervation of Aſtronomers: For from thence it appears, (1.) That the Moon deſcribes not a *Circle* but an *Ellipſe* about the Earth. (2.) That the Eccentricity of the Lunar Orbit is variable, being when leaſt but 43619; when mean, 55237; and when greateſt, 66854 of ſuch Parts as the Radius contains 1000000. (3.) That the Moon's Apogee goes forwards in the Syzygies, and backwards in the Quadratures; but upon the whole it goes forwards, ſo as to complete a Revolution in about nine Years. (4.) That the Moon's Orbit is inclined to the Plane of the Ecliptic in a certain Angle. (5.) That this

Plate LXXI. P. 351.

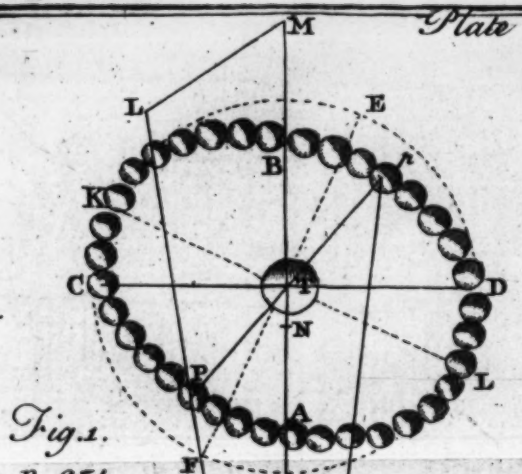


Fig. 1.
P. 351.

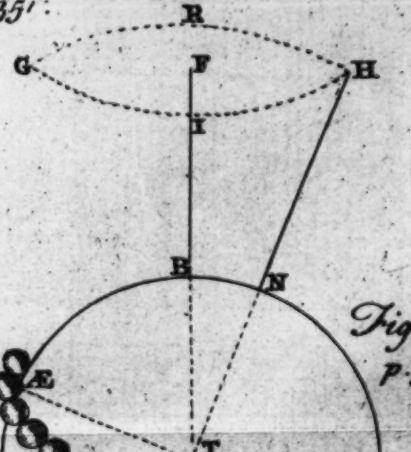
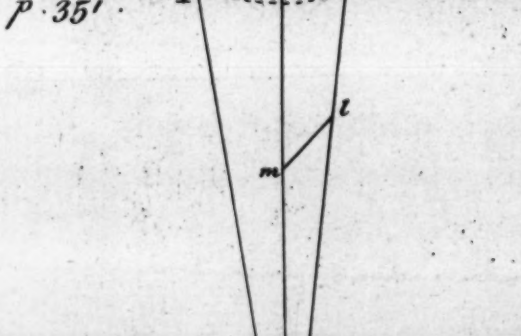
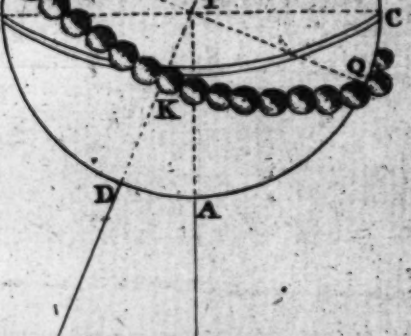


Fig. 2.
P. 353.





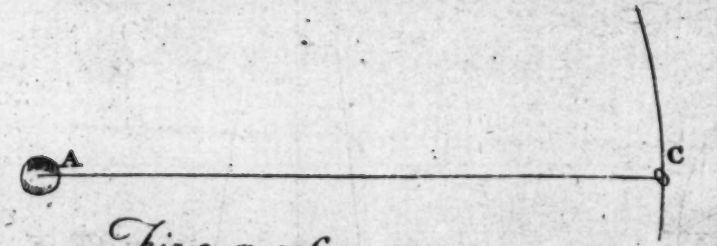
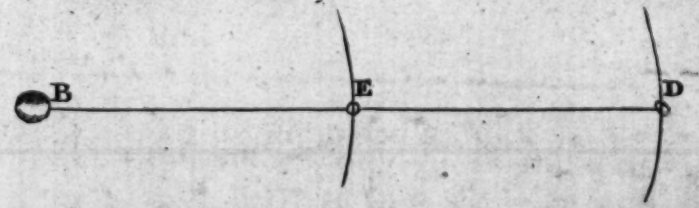
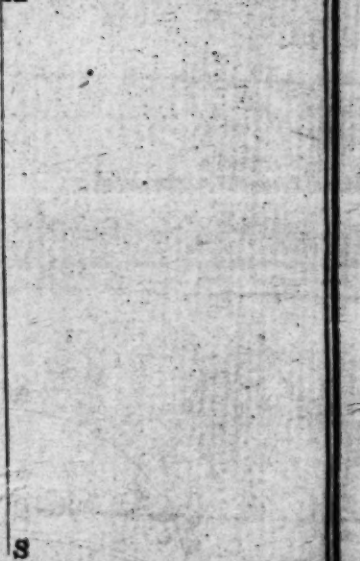


Fig. 3. p. 356.





this Inclination of the Lunar Orbit is variable, being when leaſt 5°, and when greateſt 5° 18′. (6.) That the Nodes of the Moon go ſometimes backwards, ſometimes forwards, and are in the Syzygies quieſcent. (7.) That the Motion of the Lunar Nodes is upon the whole *backwards*, at the Rate of 20° *per Annum*, and ſo as to compleat a Revolution in about 18 Years and a half. Such is the *Surprizing Harmony of the* Newtonian *Theory with Aſtronomical Obſervation, even in this moſt difficult Part*, that *Halley* might well ſay,

Intima panduntur victi penetralia Cæli,
Nec latet extremos quæ vis circumrotat Orbes.

And,

Diſcimus hinc tandem quâ cauſâ argentea Phœbe
Paſſibus haud æquis graditur; cur ſubdita nulli
Hactenus Aſtronomo numerorum fræna recuſet;
Cur remeant Nodi, curque Anges progrediuntur.

62. THE ſame Method of Reaſoning, by which we have explained the *Tides*, and the *Lunar Theory*, does alſo furniſh us with a *Phyſical Explication* of the *Motion of the Earth's Axis*. For let us conceive numerous Bodies, ſuch as P, to revolve about the Earth T, at an equal Diſtance, in equal Times, Plate LXXI. Fig. 1.

Times, and in a Plane inclined to the Plane of the Ecliptic, 'tis evident each one will be affected with the ſame Motions as the Body P. Again, Let us ſuppoſe their Number ſo increaſed as that they become contiguous to each other, and thereby form a fluid *Annulus* or Ring of cohering Bodies.

63. THEN ſince each Part of the Ring obſerves the ſame Laws of Motion with P, and becauſe while one Part is ſo attracted as to augment the Inclination of the Plane, the contrary Part is affected by a contrary Force to diminiſh it, therefore the Inclination of the Plane will always be variable, and governed by the Difference of the Forces which act upon it in contrary Parts.

64. THEREFORE ſince the greater Force always prevails, the Parts of the Ring which are in the Conjunction and Oppoſition will move more ſwiftly, and accede nearer to the Body T than thoſe in the Quadratures (by *Article* 21, 22.) And the Nodes of this Ring will be quieſcent in the Syzygies, but in any other Situation will go backwards, and ſwifteſt of all in the Quadratures (by *Article* 47—58.) Laſtly, the Inclination of the Ring will be every where analogous to that of the Lunar Orbit;

bit; and conſequently its Axis will in each Revolution oſcillate to and from the Axis of the Ecliptic, and be carried backward by the Retroceſſion of the Line of Nodes.

65. IF the Quantity of Matter in the Ring were to be diminiſhed in any Ratio, the Motions will all remain the ſame, as depending on the attractive Force of the central Body T, which is ſtill the ſame. If the Diameter of the Ring be diminiſhed, the Motions will be in the ſame Ratio diminiſhed alſo; for Effects will be as their Cauſes. But $LM : \frac{PT}{TS^2}$; and, becauſe TS is conſtant, LM is as PT. Alſo $MS = \frac{ST \times LM}{PT} = ST$; therefore MS is as ST, a given Quantity. (See *Annotation* LXXXIV. 9, 11.) Conſequently the Motions of the Ring will be every where as the diminiſhed Diſtance PT.

66. SUPPOSE therefore the Diameter of the Ring to be diminiſhed ſo far as to be equal only to the Diameter of the Earth, and the Body T to be ſpherical, and every way enlarged till it equalled the Bulk of the Earth; then would the Ring of Bodies coincide with, and be contiguous to the Plate LXXI. Fig. 2.

Surface of the Earth, and would alſo cohere to it. And ſuppoſe the Plane of the Ring made an Angle with the Plane of the Ecliptic of 23 Degrees and a half, then would all the Motions of the Ring continue, only in a leſſer Degree; and would be communicated to the Earth, becauſe it adheres firmly thereto; for the Earth equilibrated in Æther will yield to any Motion impreſſed upon it from without. But the Motions of the Ring being now communicated to the Body of the Earth, will be farther diminiſhed in Proportion as the Maſs of Matter to be moved is augmented.

67. Now this Circle or Ring of Bodies encompaſſing the Earth by Suppoſition is actually the true State of the Earth; for we have ſhewn its Diameter through the Equator Æ Q exceeds the Length of the Axis N D, (*Annot.* CXLVIII.) and therefore it is ſurrounded by a Zone of Matter upon the Equator analogous to this feigned Ring of Bodies, and which muſt of courſe produce the ſame Effects.

68. HENCE in the Equinoxes, that is, when the Earth's Nodes are in the Syzygies, or when the Line of the Nodes (*viz.* the Equinoxes) paſs through the Earth and Sun, the Inclination of the Equator and Ecliptic, that is, the Angle Æ T E or F T H,

is greateſt of all; and from this Time it grows leſs till the Sun arrives at the 90th Degree, (or *Solſtice*) when the Line of Nodes are in the Quadratures, and then it is leaſt of all.

69. THEREFORE twice in a Year the Inclination of the Ecliptic and Equator is diminiſhed, and twice again reſtored; and the Nodes (or Equinoxes) conſtantly go backwards, and carry the Axis of the Earth TH with a retrograde Motion about the Axis of the Ecliptic TF, tracing out the Circle or rather vermicular Curve HIGR in the Heavens among the Fixed Stars.

70. AGAIN; the Plane of the Equator is inclined to the Plane of the Moon's Orbit, for the latter makes an Angle of but about 5 Degrees with the Plane of the Ecliptic; and therefore the Moon (though a leſs Body than the Sun, yet being nearer) produces a greater Effect than the Sun on the Equatorial Ring or Zone of Matter, and ſo augments all the aforeſaid Motions of the Earth's Plane and Axis. Sir *Iſaac Newton* has ſhewn (*Prop.* XXXIX. *Lib.* III.) that the Part of the annual *Receſſion of the Equinoxes*, which is owing to the Sun, is $9'' 7''' 20''''$, and that which is owing to the Moon is $40'' 52''' 52''''$; therefore by the

joint Influence of the Sun and Moon the Equinoxes recede yearly about 50 ″ 00′ 12″ which is likewiſe verified by the Obſervations of Aſtronomers for 2000 Years paſt. See *Annotation* CXLI.

71. I SHALL now explain the Method uſed by Philoſophers for computing the Quantities of Matter, Denſities, Weights of Bodies, *&c.* in the *Sun*, the *Earth*, *Jupiter*, and *Saturn*, by Means of Satellites revolving about them. In order to this let Plate LXXI. Fig. 3. Q, q, expreſs the Quantities of Matter in the two Bodies A, B; alſo let G, g, be the reſpective Forces of Gravity at the equal Diſtances A C and B D. Let T, $\mathcal{T}$, be the Periodical Times of Bodies revolving about A and B at thoſe equal Diſtances; and let T, t, be the Periodical Times of Bodies revolving at the unequal Diſtances A C and B E, which call D and d.

72. THEN in the given Diſtances A C, B D, we have $Q : q :: G : g$ (*Art.* 7.) But $G : g :: \frac{1}{T^2} : \frac{1}{\mathcal{T}^2}$ (by *Annot.* XXXIV. 6.)

Whence $Q : q :: \frac{1}{T^2} : \frac{1}{\mathcal{T}^2}$; and multiplying the latter Ratio by D^3, we have $Q : q :: \frac{D^3}{T^2} : \frac{D^3}{\mathcal{T}^2}$. But becauſe $\mathcal{T}^2 : t^2 :: D^3 : d^3$, (ibid.

Art. 11.) therefore $\frac{D^3}{T^2} = \frac{d^3}{t^2}$; consequently, $Q : q :: \frac{D^3}{T^2} : \frac{d^3}{t^2}$. That is, *The Quantities of Matter in any two Bodies are in the compound Ratio of the Cubes of the Distances directly, and Squares of the Periodical Times inversely, of Bodies revolving about them.*

73. In this Calculation the Bodies A and B are supposed at Rest. We consider the Sun at Rest with respect to *Venus*, and *Jupiter* and *Saturn* in respect of their Secondaries; and we have reduced the Distance of the Moon to 60 Semidiameters, at which she would revolve about the Earth at Rest. Now let the Distance of the Earth from the Sun be put — — 1000

then *Venus* revolves about the Sun at the Distance — —	723
the 4th Satellite of *Jupiter* at the Distance — —	12,4775
the 4th Satellite of *Saturn* at the Distance — —	8,5107
the Moon at the Distance	3,054

The Periodical Time	of *Venus* is	19414160″
	of the *Jovian* Sat.	1441929″
	of the *Saturnian* Sat.	1377674″
	of the Moon,	2360580″

74. Now ſuppoſe the Quantity of Matter in the Sun be 10000, then for that in *Jupiter* ſay, As $\frac{1}{19414160}$: $\frac{1}{1441929}$ :: 10000 : 9,305, (by *Art.* 71.) the Denſity of *Jupiter* compared with that of the Sun. By the ſame Analogy the reſt are found, and in each they are as follow.

In the *Sun*, *Jupiter*, *Saturn*, *Earth*, *Moon*,
10000. 9,305. 3,250. 0,0512. 0,0013.

75. Now if theſe Quantities of Matter are divided by the Squares of the Diameters of theſe Bodies, the Quotients will be as the *Weight of Bodies on their Superficies*, (by *Annot.* XIX. 3.) The Diameters of the Sun and Planets ſee in *Annot.* CXXXV. Then theſe Gravities will be as follow.

In the *Sun*, *Jupiter*, *Saturn*, *Earth*, *Moon*,
10000. 936. 519. 431. 146.

76. IN homogeneous, unequal, ſpherical Bodies, the *Gravities on their Surfaces are as the Diameters*, if the Denſities are equal (*Annotation* XIX. 3.) But if the Bodies be equal, *the Gravities will be as the Denſities*, becauſe they will be as the Quantities of Matter, which in this Caſe are as the Denſities (*Annot.* XVII.) Therefore in Bodies of unequal Bulks and Denſities, *the Gravities will be in a compound Ratio of the Diameters*

meters and Denſities. Conſequently, *the Denſities will be as the Gravities divided by the Diameters*; and therefore in the ſeveral Bodies as follows.

In the *Sun*, *Jupiter*, *Saturn*, *Earth*, *Moon*,
10000. 9385. 6567. 39539. 48911.

77. As it is not likely that theſe Bodies are homogeneal, the Denſities here determined are not to be ſuppoſed the *true*, but rather *mean Denſities*, or ſuch as the Bodies would have if they were homogeneal, and of the ſame Maſs of Matter and Magnitude.

78. LET F, *f*, be the Forces of the Sun and Moon to move the Sea; D, *d*, their Diſtances from the Earth; then $F : f :: \frac{Q}{D^3} : \frac{q}{d^3}$. (See *Annotation* XIX and LXXXIV. 9, 11.) Let B, *b*, be the Bulks; R, *r*, the Diameters; and N, *n*, the Denſities of the Sun and Moon: then will $Q : q :: B N : b n :: R^3 N : r^3 n$; (*Annot.* XVII. and XIX.) wherefore $F : f :: \frac{R^3 N}{D^3} : \frac{r^3 n}{d^3}$. Laſtly, let A, *a*, be the apparent Diameters of the Sun and Moon; then will $A : a :: \frac{R}{D} : \frac{r}{d}$; becauſe any Body ap-

pears larger the bigger it is, and less in proportion to the increasing Distance; therefore $A^3 : a^3 :: \frac{R^3}{D^3} : \frac{r^3}{d^3}$. Hence $F : f :: A^3 N : a^3 n$. Consequently, $N : n :: F a^3 : f A^3 :: \frac{F}{A^3} : \frac{f}{a^3}$.

79. BUT (according to Sir *Isaac Newton*) $F : f :: 1 : 4{,}4815$. See *Annot.* LXXXIV. 28.) And $A : a :: 32' 12'' : 31' 16\frac{1}{2}''$ (at a Mean, by Observation.) That is, $A : a :: 3864 : 3753$. Therefore $N : n :: \frac{1}{3864^3} : \frac{4{,}4815}{3753^3} :: 10000 : 48911$, the Ratio of the Sun and Moon, as above shewn, *Art.* 76.

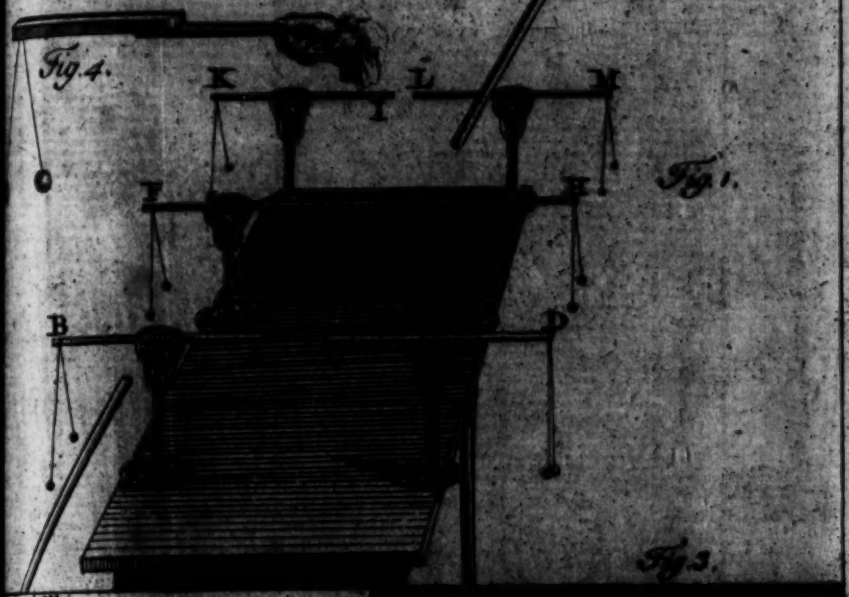
80. THE Quantities of Matter being $Q : q :: R^3 N : r^3 n$, (*Art.* 78.) and with respect to the Earth and Moon, $N : n :: 39539 : 48911$; and $R : r :: 109 : 30$, (*Annot.* CXXXVI. 4.) therefore $Q : q :: 109^3 \times 39539 : 30^3 \times 48911 :: 32{,}31 : 1 :: 0{,}0512 : 0{,}0013$, as determined in *Art.* 74.

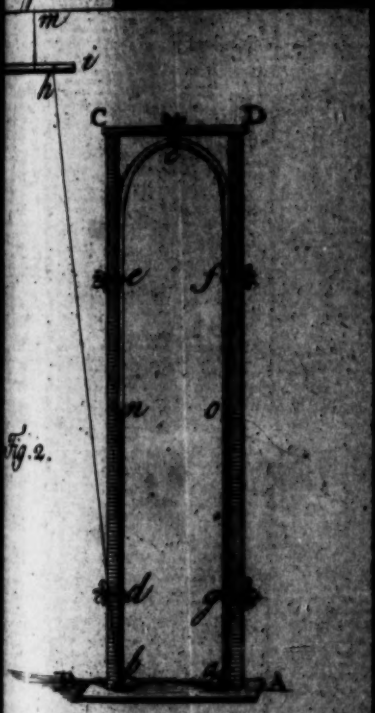
81. THE Weight of Bodies on the Surface of the Earth and Moon are *in the compound Ratio of the Diameters and Denſities*, (*Art.* 76.) that is in the Ratio of 109×39539 to 30×48911, or as 431 to 146, (as *per Art.* 75.) or as 3 to 1 nearly.

82. HAVING the Quantities of Matter in the Earth and Moon, the Diſtance of the common Centre of Gravity is determined: For the Diſtance of the Moon from the Earth's Centre is to this Diſtance as 40,31 to 1; which Ratio is more accurate than that of 41 to 1, made uſe of in *Annot.* XXXVI. *Art.* 2.

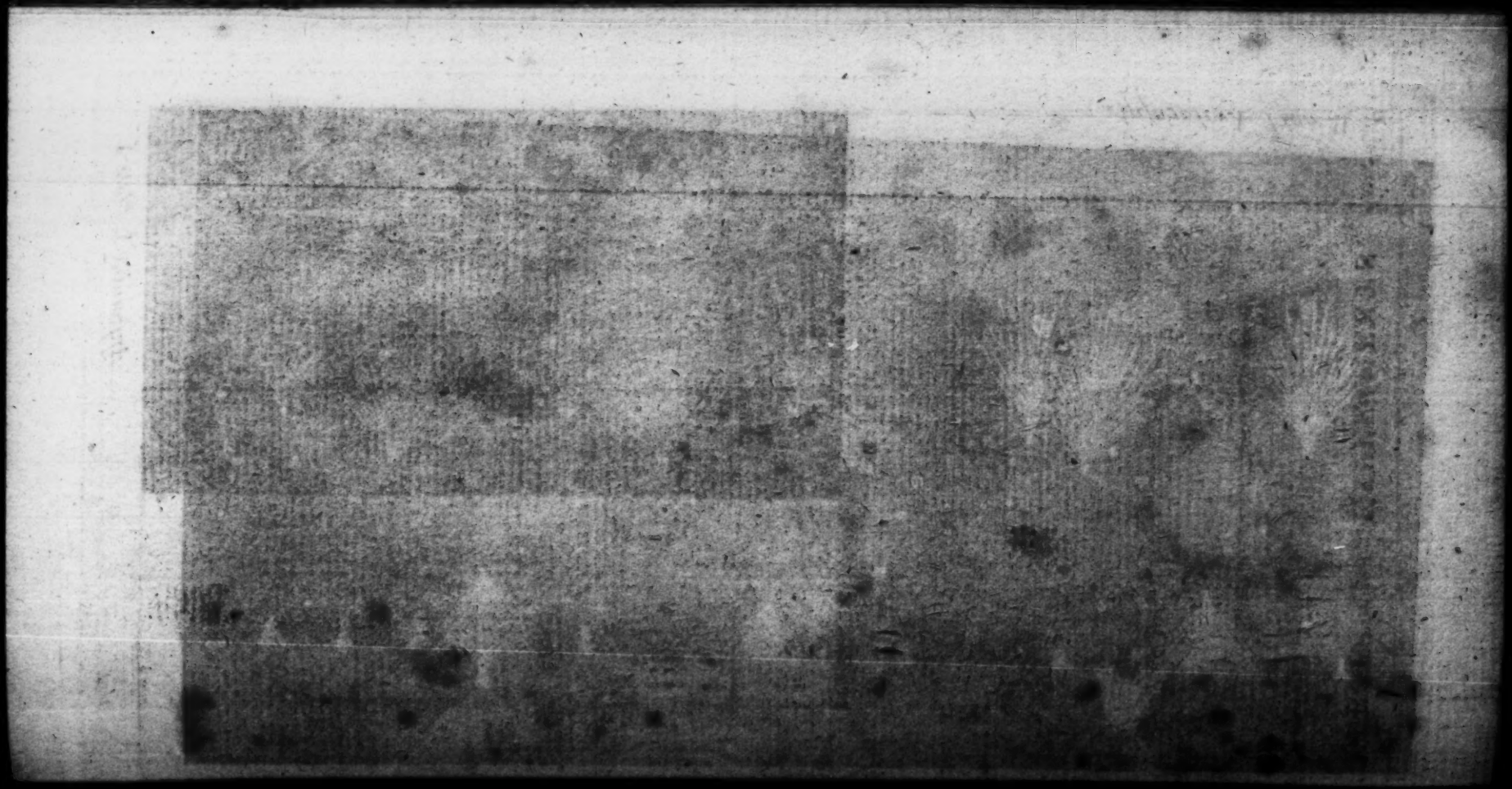
83. THE Theory we have here been explaining is applicable to any Syſtem of three or more Bodies, as well as to the *Sun*, the *Earth*, and *Moon*. Thus the perturbating Forces and Irregularities of Motion in the Syſtem of the *Sun*, *Jupiter*, and any of his Moons, may be eſtimated in nearly the ſame Manner, *(mutatis mutandis)* as alſo thoſe of the *Sun*, *Saturn*, and his *Satellites*; and laſtly, between the *Sun* and *primary Planets*, by putting the Caſe more generally, (as Sir *Iſaac* does) in ſuppoſing both S and P to revolve about the fixed central Body T, which we may ſuppoſe to be the Sun, and S and P any two of the Planets at pleaſure. Therefore, to uſe the Author's own Words (in another Caſe) for Concluſion: *Uſus igitur hujus Theoriæ latiſſimè patet; & latè patendo, Veritatem ejus evincit.*

ELECTRICAL EXPERIMENTS.



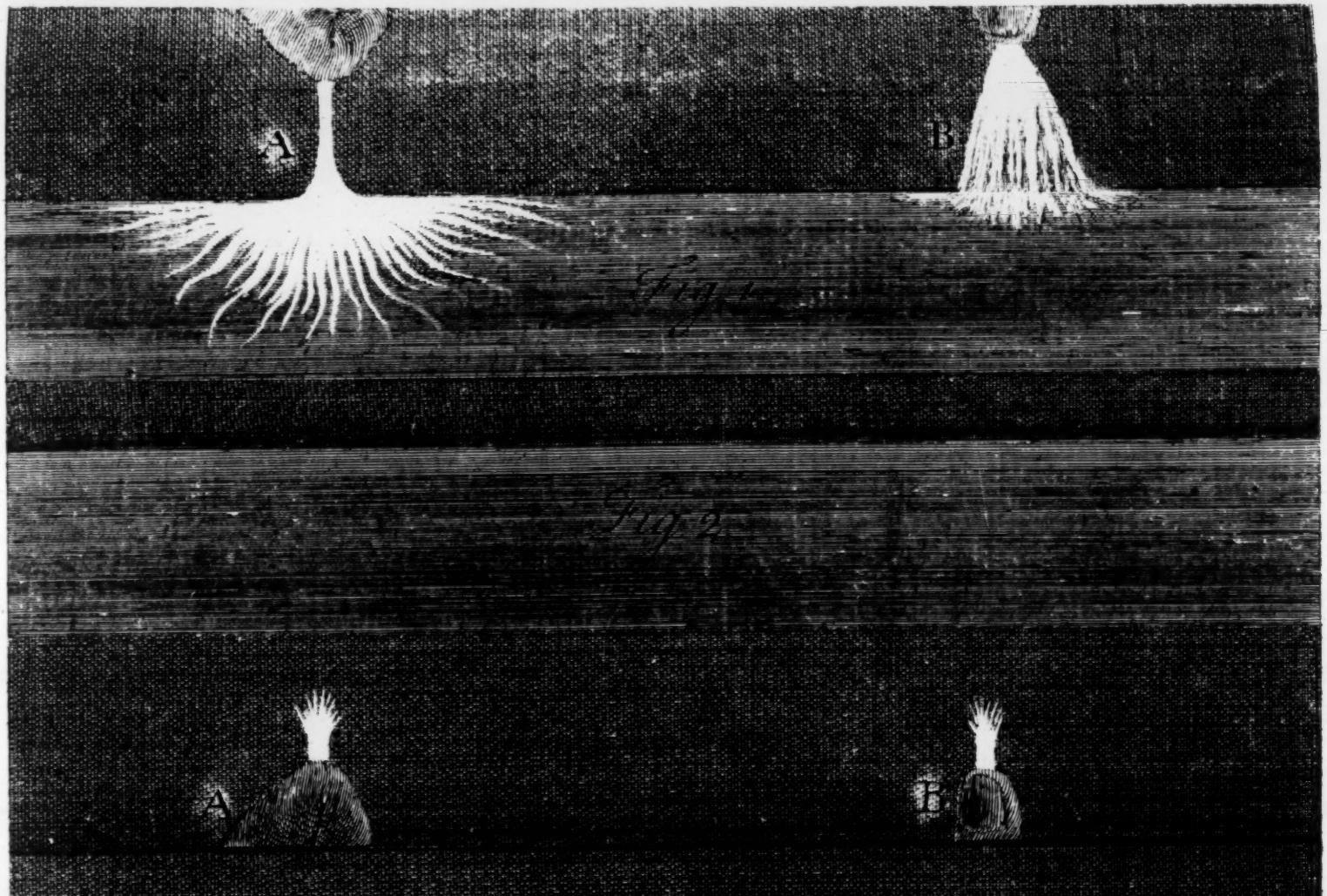


Appendix I. *Plate* I.



ELECTRICAL EXPERIMENTS *in a* Darkend ROOM.

ELECTRICAL EXPERIMENTS in a Darkened ROOM



Appendix. Part II.

ARTIFICIAL MAGNETS.

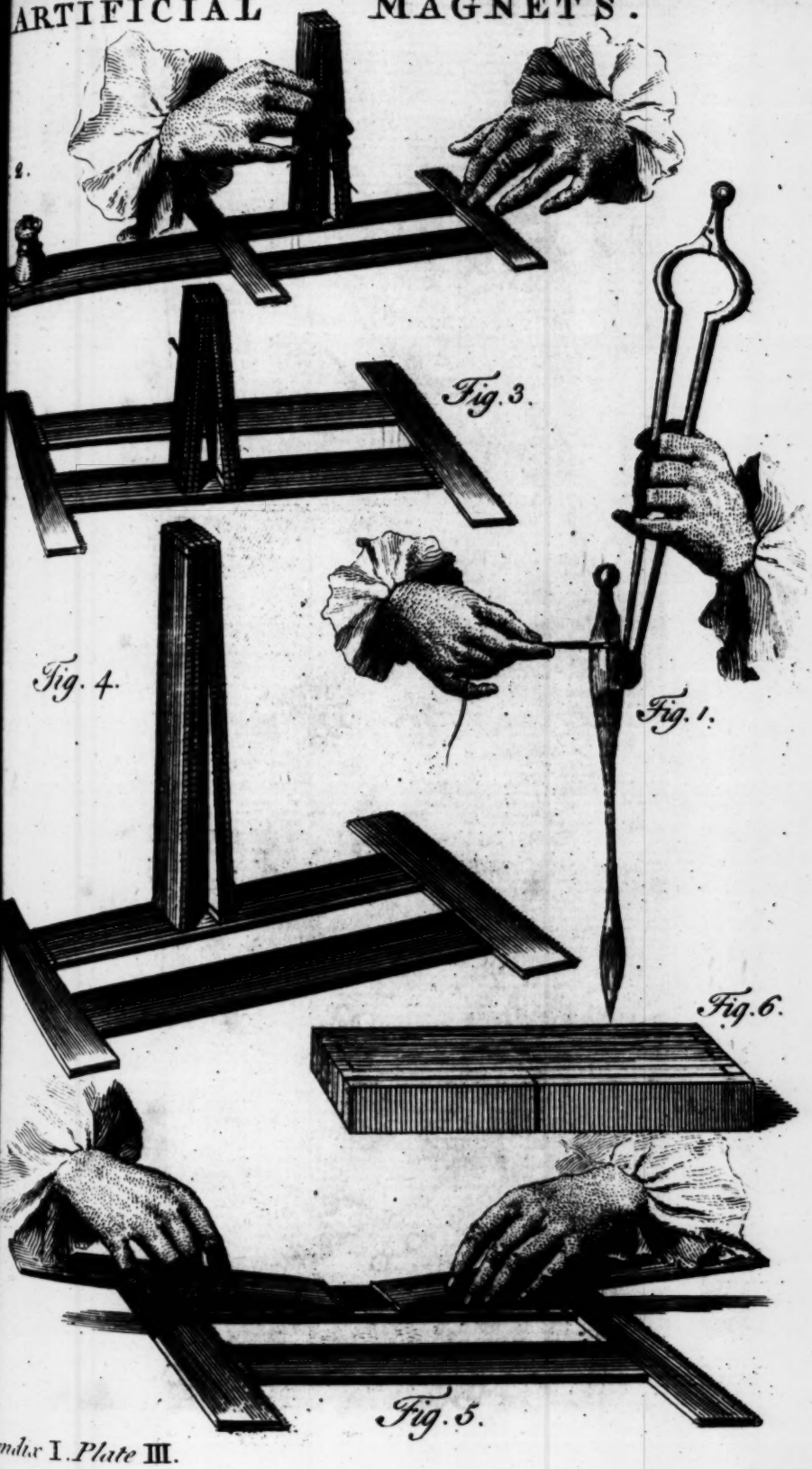


Fig. 3.

Fig. 4.

Fig. 1.

Fig. 6.

Fig. 5.

ndix I. *Plate* III.

THE GLOBULAR PROJEC

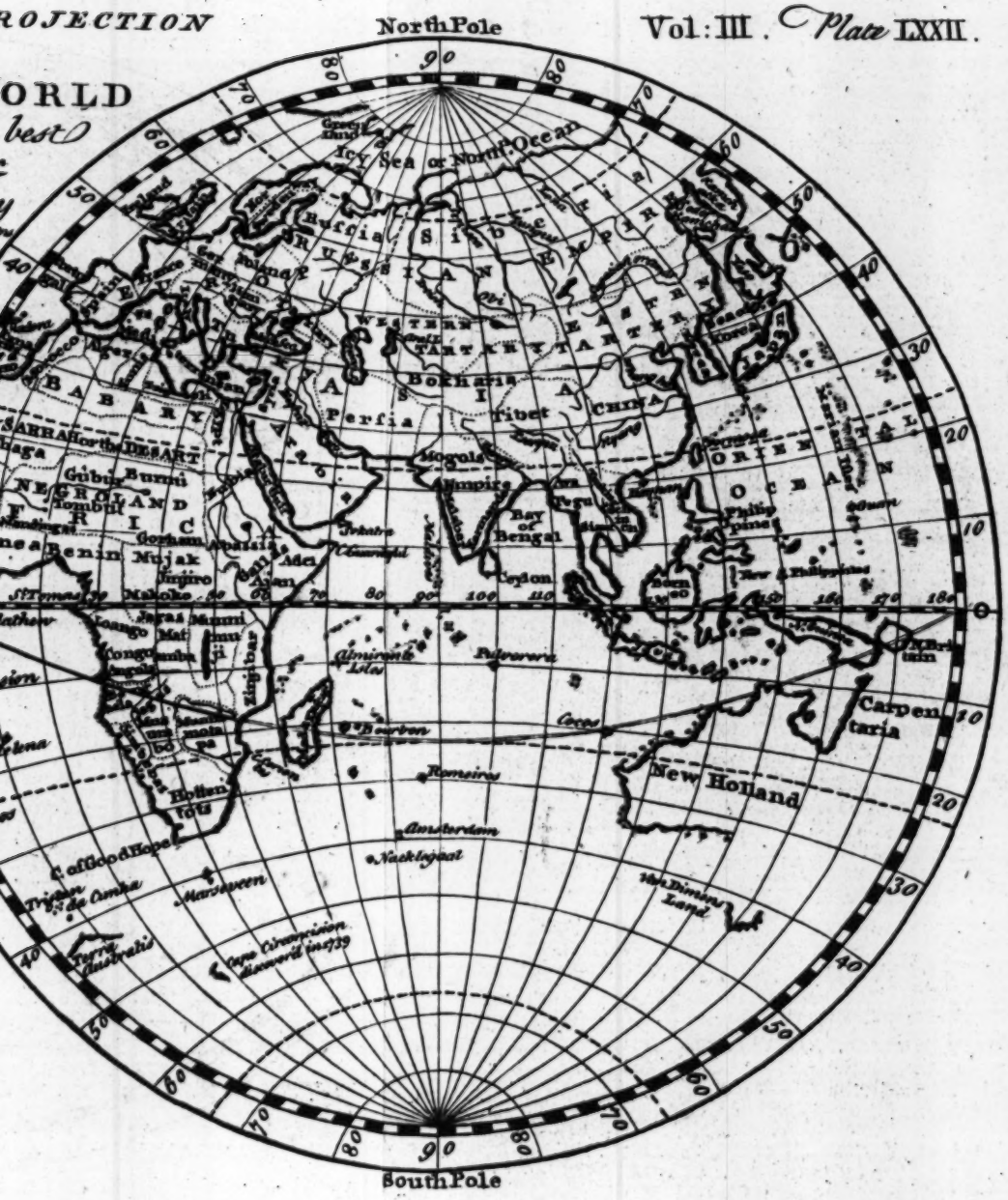
OR

A MAP of the WORLD

Drawn from the best Authorities & Regulated by Astron.l Observa.ns

ROJECTION

ORLD
best



APPENDIX II.

Concerning the IMPROVEMENTS *in* OPTICAL INSTRUMENTS.

I. *Of the* Universal Compound MICROSCOPE. II. *Of a new constructed* SOLAR MICROSCOPE. III. *A new* REFLECTING TELESCOPE *and Megalascope in one Instrument.* IV. *The Theory and Application of a* NEW MICROMETER, *by Means of a* divided Glass. V. *The* new Improvements *in refracting Telescopes considered.* VI. *Of the latter Improvements of* REFRACTING *and* REFLECTING TELESCOPES. VII. *The Nature and new Construction of* VISUAL GLASSES *explained.* VIII. *A Description of the* EQUATORIAL TELESCOPE.

I. *Of the* UNIVERSAL MICROSCOPE.

IN the first Edition of this Work a Plate of the universal Compound Microscope was designed, but through Inadvertency was left out; and since that Time

Time having made conſiderable Improvements, both in its Form and Uſe, I have ſupplied that Deficiency in the Print of one of the moſt elegant Conſtruction I can think of, and of the moſt extenſive Uſe; there being no ſmall Object of any Kind but what may be readily and eaſily viewed by it. It has all the Apparatus of Glaſſes, reflecting Specula, adjuſting Screws, *&c.* in common with others. Beſides which, the Contrivance of a moveable Stage for the Objects, and the Joint on the Top by which it is placed, either in a perpendicular or horizontal Poſition, are Advantages peculiar to this Conſtruction of a Microſcope. The Deſcription of which will be eaſy to underſtand as follows:

Plate I. A B C is the Body of the Microſcope.

A is the Magnifier, of which there are four of different Powers.

B is the large Middle-Glaſs for amplifying the Field of View.

C is the Eye-Glaſs at the Top.

D the Joint on which the Microſcope is moveable on a perpendicular, oblique, or horizontal Poſition at pleaſure.

E is a Screw, and F the Socket by which it is taken off and put on as Occaſion requires.

GHI is the moveable Stage on which Objects are placed to be viewed, and has a Motion about the Centre.

K is the Screw in the Centre L, by which that Motion is adjuſted and regulated.

MN are two Pieces of Braſs moveable upon a ſquare Stem, to adjuſt the Stage with its Objects to a proper Diſtance from the Magnifier A.

O is a Screw for fixing the Piece M to the Stem.

P the adjuſting Screw for moving the Part N up and down to its proper Situation.

QR the Braſs Pillar on which the whole is ſupported.

STV three ſtrong Feet, ſerving as a firm Baſis to the Microſcope.

W a reflecting Mirror, moveable vertically in a Semicircle X, and horizontally in a Socket at Y.

THE Body of the Microſcope, the Stage, and the reflecting Mirror are taken off from the Stem, and the Legs folded together, ſo as to be conveniently placed, and take up but little Room in a Shagreen Caſe, which is therefore of a portable Size.

II. *Of the New* SOLAR MICROSCOPE.

THE Plate of the Solar Microſcope given in the firſt Edition being imperfect on two Accounts, *viz.* That it exhibited a View only of Part of the Inſtrument, and that of a very bad Conſtruction, I have thought it proper here to add the Figure of this extraordinary Inſtrument, with all the Improvements I have hitherto been able to make in it, which are as follow:

FIRST, The Common Solar Microſcope was made of *Wilſon*'s, fixed to a proper Apparatus: But as this Form admitted only one Magnifier in the Inſtrument at a Time, it is changed for another, in which all the Magnifiers are contained in a Slider; and ſo all the different Degrees of magnifying an Object in a dark Room are immediately at Hand.

SECONDLY, With *Wilſon*'s Part the Object was moved towards the Glaſs with a Screw; in this the Glaſs is moved towards the Object by Teeth and Pinion, which is found to be much the better Way.

THIRDLY, In the old Form the whole Body of *Wilſon*'s Microſcope was obliged to be

be turned round ſeveral Times in getting a true focal Diſtance, by which Means a Motion of the large confuſed Image became ſo great as to be very diſagreeable to the Spectators, which is intirely prevented in this new Form, where there is only a Motion of the Object backward and forward in a right Line.

FOURTHLY, Thoſe which were made in Wood had the Looking-Glaſs move by Wheel and Pulley, with Cat-gut Strings ſtrained tight upon them. But this Mechaniſm being often at Fault, and giving Gentlemen a great deal of Trouble, I have ſubſtituted in this new Form a Wheel and Pinion with Teeth, as well in thoſe made of Wood as Braſs, by which the Motion of the Glaſs is rendered always conſtant, certain, and eaſy.

FIFTHLY, The Looking-Glaſs in the old Form is raiſed and depreſſed by a ſliding Wire; but in this new one, whether in Braſs or Wood, the ſaid Glaſs is moved by a Screw, and therefore will always ſtand in the Poſition it is ſet, and give no Trouble in the Experiment.

SIXTHLY, The illuminating Glaſs was ſcrewed on the Outſide of the Frame of this Inſtrument; but in this new Conſtruction

ſtruction it is placed within the End of the large Tube, which is much more convenient.

UPON the Whole, the *old Conſtruction* of the Solar Microſcope rendered it a heavy, clumſey, and ill-contrived Inſtrument; whereas every one who has ſeen the Form which I have here given in the Plate allow it to be the moſt neat and eaſy, light and uſeful that can be contrived. The ſeveral Parts of which are as follow:

Plate II.

A B C D is the Square Plate ſcrewed on to the Window-Shutter.

E F is the Looking-Glaſs on the Outſide.

G is the Pinion, which, by an End-leſs Screw on the other Side the Plate, moves the reflecting Glaſs up and down.

L is the Pinion by which the Wheel contained under the Piece

M N is moved, and by which the Looking-Glaſs E F has a circular Motion given it.

O P is the Tube containing the Illuminating Glaſs at O, and a Drawer at P, by which a due Quantity of Light is thrown upon the Object.

QR is a Part ſubſtituted inſtead of *Wilſon*'s Microſcope, the Inner Part of which is fixed, and the outer Part moveable for the adjuſting a due focal Diſtance of the Object from the Glaſs.

R is the Part conſiſting of three Braſs Plates, in which the Sliders and Tubes containing the Objects are placed, as in *Wilſon*'s Microſcope, and kept together by a ſpiral Spring Wire within.

S is the Braſs Slider containing the ſeveral magnifying Glaſſes, which may be ſucceſſively applied to the Object by which it may be inſtantly magnified to any Degree at Pleaſure.

T is the Pinion by which the external Part QV is moveable backward and forward, for procuring a true focal Diſtance, and conſequently the Image of the Object with the utmoſt Facility and Exactneſs.

III. *Of a New* REFLECTING TELESCOPE.

HAVING long obſerved the great Perfection and Uſefulneſs of Reflecting Teleſcopes above Refractors, ariſing from their Nature and Conſtruction, I have been Plate IV. Fig. 1.

more ſolicitous to cultivate and improve that Inſtrument than any other; eſpecially when I ſaw much Room left for that Purpoſe. The Reflecting Teleſcope, as uſually made, has not half the Uſes it is capable of; for when it is well conſidered, it will be found to anſwer the Purpoſes, not of a TELESCOPE only for viewing diſtant Bodies, but likewiſe it is the moſt compleat MEGALASCOPE, or Inſtrument for ſhewing all Objects at a very near Diſtance, and all the larger Sort of ſmall Objects in the greateſt Perfection. In the third Place it gives the moſt perfect View of any ſmall Object, opake or tranſparent; and therefore is a MICROSCOPE of the very beſt Kind, as far exceeding common Refracting Microſcopes, as Viſion by reflected Light is more exquiſite and perfect than that by Refraction. Indeed there are two different Ways by which the Reflecting Teleſcope may be uſed as a Microſcope, each of which has its peculiar Advantage. In the fourth and laſt Place, this Inſtrument is a SOLAR MICROSCOPE, by being ſcrewed into the Plate A B C D of that Inſtrument above deſcribed. In all theſe ſeveral Ways I have uſed this Inſtrument with great Succeſs, and Pleaſure. I have, for theſe Purpoſes, contrived

trived it in a different Form from that in which they are uſually made, and by which Means they are eaſily applicable to the foregoing Purpoſes; and even thoſe that will ſhew *Jupiter*'s Moons are hereby rendered portable, or adapted to the Pocket.

THESE Pocket Reflecting Teleſcopes have a Drawer, in the End of which the ſmall Speculum is fixed, and adjuſted by Teeth and Pinion. They are equally applicable to uſe at Sea as at Land; and, notwithſtanding many People have been perſuaded, that Refracting Teleſcopes are moſt uſeful at Sea, the Abſurdity of this Notion will evidently appear to any one who conſiders what we have in the foregoing Lecture ſufficiently demonſtrated, *viz.* That the natural Cauſe of indiſtinct Viſion is vaſtly leſs in a Reflecting Teleſcope than in a Refractor; and this upon the Suppoſition that the Quantity of Light and magnifying Power are the ſame in both. To conclude, I am thoroughly ſatisfied that if the Nature of this Inſtrument was well conſidered and underſtood, and People could be made ready at the Uſe of it, they who could afford to purchaſe it, would never have any other. But though the practical Application be very eaſy, yet as it is

new and unuſual, and requires ſome ſmall Degree of Dexterity, I have no great Expectation of its being ſoon made public or brought into common Uſe, when I find by Experience, how eaſy, cheap, and common every Thing muſt be for that Purpoſe, and how few there are to encourage any Thing of a different Kind in the preſent Age. I had thoughts of illuſtrating the particular Uſes of this *general Catoptric Inſtrument*; as likewiſe to ſhew how a *Reflecting Teleſcope*, a *Reflecting Microſcope*, and a *Reflecting Solar Microſcope*, by metalline Speculums of a different Form and Poſition, and of a more perfect Nature, might be conſtructed and applied to Uſe, but have declined that alſo for the Reaſons above mentioned.

IV. *The Theory of a* NEW MICROMETER.

AS the Perfection of Aſtronomy depends upon the moſt accurate Methods for meaſuring the Diameters of the celeſtial Bodies by Means of thoſe Inſtruments we call MICROMETERS, applied in Teleſcopes for that Purpoſe, it has given the ſagacious Aſtronomers Occaſion to contrive

trive them in many different Forms; but all of them, till very lately, were applied in the Focus of the Object-Glaſs, to meaſure the Images of the heavenly Bodies formed there, and they may be juſtly reckoned among the moſt exquiſite Inventions of modern Mechanics.

BUT as the Diameter of the Sun and Moon are ſo much larger than the Planets, the Micrometer which ſerves for one, could not be ſo well adapted to meaſure the other; which put ſome Philoſophers upon thinking of a Method by which they might meaſure the apparent Diameter of the Sun, without being obliged to take the Whole of the Sun's Diſk into the Teleſcope; and this they at Length ingeniouſly contrived by forming a Teleſcope in ſuch a Manner as to make two Images of the Sun in the Focus of the Teleſcope at the ſame Time, and bringing them into Contact with each other. And this Inſtrument they properly call a HELIOMETER.

THE firſt Inſtrument of this Kind is of a late Date, and was the Contrivance of the late celebrated *Servington Savory*, Eſq; of *Exeter*, who, in the Year 1743, in a Letter to Mr. *George Graham*, dated *November* 30th, gives an Account of a new Way

of meaſuring the Difference between the apparent Diameter of the Sun at the Time when the Earth is neareſt to and fartheſt from the Sun, with a Micrometer placed in the Teleſcope invented for that Purpoſe. Though the Charge, or magnifying Power of the Teleſcope is ſo great, that the Whole Sun's Diameter does not appear therein at one View.—" This, ſays Mr. " *Savory*, I doubt not, will at firſt Sight " ſeem impoſſible, ſince only a Part of the " Diameter appears, and no viſible Mark " or Point therein from which ſuch Mea- " ſure can be taken. And, indeed, it is " ſo by Obſervation with our common Te- " leſcopes, whether refracting or reflecting " ones. I have therefore contrived ſome " Dioptric Teleſcopes, and a reflecting one; " either of which, by repreſenting the Ob- " ject double, will, if well made, anſwer " the Deſign."

AFTER this he proceeds to ſhew at large, by cutting of a large Object-Lens into four Parts or Segments, and combining the two outer ones together, or the two Middle ones inverted, how he could form this double Image of the Sun; but as thoſe Images were not well defined and free from Colours, he proceeded to a third Method of forming thoſe Images by Means of two Object-

Object-Lenſes entire, but of ſmall Diameter; but in this Caſe the Difficulty lay in getting Object-Glaſſes exactly centered, and of the ſame focal Length in ſo ſmall a Size.

HE then had Recourſe to reflecting Mirrors, cut them aſunder, and combined their Fruſtums to anſwer the ſame Purpoſe. However, all his Attempts of this Kind left the Inſtrument but imperfect; and after this we find the ſame Thing attempted that M. *Bouguer* read before the Royal Academy of Sciences at *Paris*, in the Year 1748, a *Memoir*, in which he deſcribes an Heliometer with two Object-Glaſſes for meaſuring the Diameter of the Sun and Planets. It is probable this was taken from Mr. *Savory*'s Experiments ſome Years before, but of this we have no particular Account.

HOWEVER, it was ſoon conſidered, that an Object-Glaſs divided into two Segments through the Centre or Pole, would more conveniently anſwer the Purpoſe in thoſe two Parts, than could be done by two whole Glaſſes: Foraſmuch as each Segment would form an equal Image of the Sun, and at an equal Diſtance from the End of the Teleſcope; or in other Words, the focal

Diſtance of each Segment would be exactly the ſame, and the Images of the Sun and Planets formed exactly in the ſame Plane in the Focus of the Teleſcope.

AND ſince the Centres of the Sun, each Segment of the Glaſs, and its Image are all found in one Right Line, therefore if one Segment of the Glaſs be fixed in the End of the Teleſcope, the Image formed in it will alſo be fixed, or remain conſtantly in the ſame Part of the Focus; and if the other Segment be moved in the ſame Plane over it, as its Centre or Middle Point is removed from that of the fixed Segment, ſo likewiſe is the Centre of the moveable Image equally removed from the Centre of the fixed one; or the Centres of the two Images will always be equidiſtant with the Centres of the two Object-Glaſſes, and conſequently the Diameter of the Sun or Planet (being equal to its two Semidiameters) muſt be equal to the Diſtance between the two Centres of the Segments, when thoſe two Images are in Contact or touch each other in the Focus of the Teleſcope. And this is the whole Ground or Reaſon of the new Micrometer, which will be beſt illuſtrated by Figures, as it is applied to the Refracting or Reflecting Teleſcope, as follows:

LET

LET A B C D repreſent any very diſtant Object, as the Sun, &c. and A B its Diameter; alſo let E F G S repreſent the Object-Glaſs conſiſting of two Segments E F G and E S G divided through the Centre N in the Right Line E G. The Angle under which it appears at the End of the Teleſcope will be A N B equal to the Angle K N L, under which the Image K L is contained. Now, ſuppoſe the moveable Segment E F G were by a mechanical Contrivance drawn off to the Poſition H I, the Diſtance of their Centres would be N O; and the two Lines A N and B O paſſing through the Centres N, O, of the Segments, if produced, meet at the Focus in L; and ſince B L and B K do alſo paſs through the Centres N and O, and the Object being at an indefinitely great Diſtance, the Line O L will be parallel to N K, and conſequently the Angle N L O is equal to the Angle K N L or A N B, that is to ſay, *the Angle under which the Object appears from the End of the Teleſcope (or to the naked Eye) is equal to the Angle under which the Diſtance between the two Centres of the Segments appear from the Solar Focus of the Teleſcope.* Plate III. Fig. 1.

AND

AND this will be the Caſe in every Diſtance of an Object; for ſuppoſing the Object A B were at ſome near Diſtance from the Teleſcope, and ſubtended the ſame Angle A N B, the only Conſequence would be, that its Image would be formed at a greater Diſtance from the Glaſs; ſuppoſe at M P, it would ſtill be contained under the ſame Angle M N P, equal to N L O, as before, upon the Suppoſition that the Segment H I and B O produced meets A P in the Point P, that is to ſay, ſuppoſe that the Segment H I is in ſuch Poſition that the moveable Image Q R, formed by it, exactly coincides with the fixed Image M P, formed by the Segment E S G.

THIS likewiſe may be otherwiſe ſhewn from Theorem $\frac{dr}{d-r} = f$. (See *Annotat.* CXXV. *Art.* 27.) For putting A N $= d$, N P $= f$, and N L $= r$, or Focus of parallel Rays, we have $dr = fd - fr$; and thereby $d : f :: d - r : r$. Conſequently $d + f : f :: d : r$; that is, A Q : Q N :: A N : N L; and by ſimilar Triangles A Q B, N Q O, we have A Q : Q N :: A B : N O; therefore A N : N L :: A B : N O. Whence the Triangles A N B and N L Q are ſimilar, and the Angle at N under which

which the Object appears is equal to that at L, under which the Diſtance N O of the Centres appears. *Q. E. D.*

CONCERNING this Vitreous Micrometer we may farther obſerve that its great Excellency conſiſts in this, that it depends ſolely in meaſuring the Diſtance of the Centres of the two Segments, not only when applied alone at the End of a Teleſcope, but even in Conjunction with the Object-Glaſs of any common Teleſcope; for, in *Figure* (2), let E G and H I repreſent the two Segments, as before, of a Glaſs whoſe focal Diſtance is very long, ſuppoſe, for Inſtance, 50 Feet, then at a ſmall Diſtance from it let A B repreſent the Object-Glaſs of a common long Teleſcope, whoſe focal Diſtance of parallel Rays is C *d*, or its Focus of very diſtant Objects *d c*. Then this Glaſs, combined with the foregoing Segments, will have its Focus ſhortened, and the common Focus of both will be in Point *q*. Then becauſe the Triangles R O Q and P N M are ſimilar to the Triangles *r* O *q* and *p* N *m* reſpectively, therefore the Images R Q and P M will be ſimilar, and alike poſited to the two ſmall Images *r q* and *p q*; and therefore when theſe two Images are in Contact in the Focus of the Semi-

Plate III. Fig. 2.

Lenſes, they will likewiſe be in Contact in the ſhortened compound Focus. And as the Centres N and O of the two Semi-Lenſes G E and I H are ſeparated farther from, or brought nearer to each other, the Images in either Focus will be moved in ſimilar Manner; and when the Centres N and O coincide, the Images in each Focus reſpectively will alſo coincide, or become one entire Image, the Difference in every Caſe being only as to large and ſmall, greater or leſſer Diſtance. Conſequently in the Micrometer by which thoſe two Semi-Lenſes are moved by each other, the ſame Turns of the Screw which meaſures the Angle O P N, and which brings the Images into an exact Contact in the ſingle Focus at Q, will be neceſſary for the ſame Purpoſe in the compound Focus alſo; ſo that by this Means we have an Opportunity of meaſuring the ſaid Angle O P Q, without being obliged to have ſo great and ſo unmanageable a Length of the Teleſcope.

HOWEVER, the larger the focal Diſtance of the Lens A B is, the more diſtinct the Contact of the Images will appear; and becauſe this is the Point on which the whole Perfection of this Micrometer depends,

pends, it will be likewiſe neceſſary to have it ſo contrived, when applied to a Teleſcope, that the Centres N O may be equally diſtant from the Axis of the Teleſcope or Centre of the Apperture on either Side; becauſe in this Caſe the Point of Contact in the two Images will be juſt in the Centre of the Focus, and therefore the moſt diſtinct that it poſſibly can be.

BUT the Application of this Micrometer to Refracting Teleſcopes will be leſs convenient than when it is applied to a Reflecting Teleſcope; for if it be placed on the open End of the Reflecting Teleſcope, as in *Fig.* 3, then will the Rays that tend to form the larger Images R Q and P M be incident upon the larger Speculum A B, and from thence reflected to a compound Focus, where the ſimilar Images *r q* and *p m* will be formed as before; the Rays proceeding from theſe two Images to the ſmaller Speculum a b, will be reflected back through the Hole of the larger, to form the Images *Q R* and *P M*, which likewiſe will ſtill be in Contact in the Focus of the Eye-Glaſs D C, where it will be diſtinctly perceived by the Eye at I. This Contact will likewiſe be ſhewn in the Middle of the Focus of the Eye-Glaſs, if the Centres O and

Plate III. Fig. 3.

O and N are properly diſpoſed, as before mentioned.

FROM what has been ſaid, the general Rationale of this Micrometer will, I preſume, evidently appear; but one Thing muſt not paſs unregarded in an Affair of ſuch Moment and Conſequence as the meaſuring theſe ſmall Angles in the Science of Aſtronomy, which has been cuſtomary to ſuppoſe, that ſo far the Focus of a Lens, or the focal Diſtance of Rays parallel to its Axis, is equal to the Radius in a double and equally convex Lens. But this is too great an Error not to be noticed here; for in different Sorts of Glaſs there is found a different refractive Power, and the Focus of parallel Rays is at a different Diſtance in each; but this Diſtance in no Sort of Glaſs is equal to the Radius, but falls ſhort of it more or leſs. Now the foregoing Demonſtration regards the Radius, and not the focal Diſtance of parallel Rays. But this Affair will be beſt illuſtrated by Example as follows:

LET the Sine of Incidence be to the Sine of Refraction out of Air into Glaſs as m to n; and let $\frac{m-n}{n} = a$, then will a expreſs the refractive Power of the Glaſs; and

and the Theorem for a double and equally convex Lens will be $\frac{dr}{2ad-r}=f$, which for parallel Rays, becomes $\frac{r}{2a}=f$; whence $r=2af$; or $f:r::1:2a$.

THEREFORE to repreſent this Matter in its proper Light, we will ſtate the Proportions of Page 378 from this correct Theorem, and they will ſtand thus, $d:f::2ad-r:r$; and $d+f:f::2ad:r$; that is, AQ : QN :: $2a\times$ AN : NL :: AB : NO : Hence NO : AB :: $r:2ad::f:d$. Or, *the Diſtance of the Centers* NO *has the ſame Ratio to* AB, *the Length of the Object, as the focal Diſtance of parallel Rays has to the Diſtance* AN, *or as the Radius has to the ſaid Diſtance multiplied by* $2a$. Whence 'tis evident we cannot uſe the Radius without conſidering the Refraction of the Glaſs; but the *focal Diſtance of parallel Rays* ſerves equally for all Sorts of Lenſes, is moſt eaſily found, and therefore fitteſt for the Analogy, as before determined, in meaſuring Angles and Diſtances.

WITH regard to the Planets, as *Jupiter* is the largeſt of all, and ſubtends an Angle to the Eye of $3'\,12''$, the Diameter of his Image in the Focus of a 50 Foot Glaſs will be

be about half an Inch, and that will be the utmoſt Diſtance to which the Centres of the Segments will be required to be ſeparated for meaſuring the apparent Diameters of the Planets.

BUT for a HELIOMETER, the Diameter of the Sun being near ten times as great as that of *Jupiter*, will require the Centres of the Segments in a Glaſs of 40 or 50 Feet Focus to be removed from each other at leaſt to the Diſtance of 4 or 5 Inches; and to take in the whole Syſtem of *Jupiter*'s Moons, the Diſtance of the Centres will be required much larger; and therefore for ſuch Purpoſes the Segments of Glaſſes of a leſs focal Length muſt be uſed.

As this Micrometer has many Advantages above that which is in common Uſe, ſo on the other hand it is liable to ſome Objections; for ſince the Images of Objects can never be well defined but in the very large focal Diſtances, and ſince thoſe Glaſſes are not made true without great Care and Difficulty, they will come dear, and then we muſt run the Riſque of ſpoiling them in cutting them aſunder; for if they are not cut nicely through the Centre it will derogate from the Value and Goodneſs

neſs of the Inſtrument. Alſo ſince at the ſame Time a very great magnifying Power is required in the Inſtrument to which it is applied, it can be applicable for Aſtronomical Purpoſes in only Reflecting Teleſcopes, becauſe of the Conveniency of adapting it to the Tube of the Teleſcope, and moving it at the ſame time you are obſerving the Object through it.

V. *Concerning the Improvement of Refracting* MICROSCOPES *and* TELESCOPES *by a Compoſition of Glaſſes.*

IT has been already ſhewn in *Annotation* CXXVIII. *Art.* 18. *that the Errors ariſing from the different Refrangibility of the Rays of Light will be as the Cubes of the lineal Aperture of the Glaſs directly, and the Squares of its Diſtance inverſely*; and conſequently in Glaſſes of the ſame Aperture the Indiſtinctneſs of Viſion will be inverſely as their focal Diſtances; wherefore if, while the magnifying Power and Aperture of the Lens continue the ſame, we can increaſe this Ratio of the focal Diſtance to the ſaid lineal Aperture, we ſhall in that Proportion increaſe the Diſtinctneſs of Viſion, which is the very Point in which the Perfection of Microſcopes and Teleſcopes conſiſt.

Plate IV. Fig. 2. To illuſtrate this, let AEDG be a Lens, F the Focus of parallel Rays, f the Place of an Object OB; through the Point F draw a Line to interſect the Object in the Point B, and falling upon the Lens in the Point A. This Ray will be refracted into AM, parallel to the Axis of the Lens FCO; from f draw the Line FA, which by the Lens will be refracted to its reſpective Focus V; then will LV repreſent the Image of Part of the Object Bf; let MN be an Eye-Glaſs by which that Image is to be viewed, which therefore muſt be placed at its focal Diſtance PV; from it draw PL, and parallel thereto draw MO, then will the Angle MOP be the viſual Angle under which the Image LV will appear in the Eye at O.

WE are now to ſhow how this Image may be viewed with more Diſtinctneſs, and under the ſame Angle and Aperture as before; and this is effected by ſubſtituting two Glaſſes HI and US inſtead of the ſingle Glaſs MN; for by this Means we ſhall make the ſame Angle by two Refractions which before was made by one, and that will produce the deſired Effect; for let the Glaſs HI be placed at its focal Diſtance IP from the Centre of the firſt Glaſs MN, then will the Ray AH (which before

before proceeded to M) be now refracted into HP, and the Ray AV will at K be refracted into KZ; draw the Line IL and it will interſect the Ray HP in X, and XZ will be the Image of the Object Bf. All this we have demonſtrated in the Optical Lecture.

LET this Image be viewed by the Eye-Glaſs US, whoſe focal Diſtance TZ or TP may be ſuch that the Ray HP may be now a ſecond Time refracted at U into UQ; parallel to MO or LP draw TX, which will alſo be parallel to UQ, then will the Image ZX, or rather the Part of the Object Bf, be ſeen under the Angle TQU equal to MOP, as at firſt.

Now it is evident, that were the Glaſs US alone by itſelf, the Indiſtinctneſs of Viſion would be inverſely as TQ, for that would then be the focal Diſtance of the Glaſs; but now this Glaſs TU, in Compoſition with the other Lens HI, ſhews the ſame Image under the ſame Angle and Aperture with the focal Diſtance TP; the Indiſtinctneſs of Viſion therefore now will be inverſely as TP, or in other Words, the Diſtinctneſs of Viſion in the firſt Caſe by a ſingle Glaſs will be to the Diſtinctneſs of the Glaſſes in Compoſition as TQ to TP, or the Image will appear ſo much

diſtincter by the two Glaſſes H I and U S together, than it would do by the ſingle Eye-Glaſs M N alone, in Proportion as T P is greater than T Q; all which is evident from the foregoing Principles of Optics.

WITH reſpect to the Lens A E D, if it be a ſmall one, and the focal Diſtance C F be ſhort, then will it repreſent the Object-Glaſs of a Microſcope, and the ſmall Object O B will be viewed to much greater Advantage by Means of the two Eye-Glaſſes H I and U S, than by a ſingle Eye-Glaſs alone M N. Whence the Reaſon is evident of the uſual Conſtruction of this Inſtrument, as we have before ſhewn.

BUT if A E D G be the Object-Glaſs of a Teleſcope, and F C its Focus, then will O B repreſent a diſtant Object, whoſe Image W L is that which is viewed by a ſingle Eye-Glaſs M N in what is called the *Aſtronomical Teleſcope*; but this Image is more diſtinctly viewed by two Glaſſes I and T, than by one alone; and therefore ſuch a Teleſcope ſhould conſiſt at leaſt of three Glaſſes.

IN the common Teleſcope the Image L W is conſidered as an Object, and another Image is formed of it, as was ſhewn in Figure 8, of Plate XLVIII, and as we have now ſhewn that each Image requires the

the Addition of a Lens to ſhew it more diſtinctly, inſtead of the three Eye-Glaſſes which you there ſee repreſented in a common Teleſcope, there ought to be the Addition of two more, or five in all, next the Eye, to ſhew the Object to the beſt Advantage. Theſe, together with the Object-Glaſs, make ſix Glaſſes in all, in Teleſcopes of the beſt Sort.

IF A C D repreſent the ſmall Speculum of a Reflecting Teleſcope, then will O B be the Image formed by the large Speculum before it, and I, T, will be the two Glaſſes contained in the Eye-Piece of a Reflecting Teleſcope. And, indeed, with a little Reflection it will appear, that if two Glaſſes, by breaking the Refraction into two Parts, is an Advantage, three Glaſſes will be more ſo, and therefore in ſome Caſes might be ſucceſsfully applied.

ALSO ſince the Diſtinctneſs of Viſion is by a Compoſition of Glaſſes promoted, the Aperture of the Glaſs next the Eye may be ſomewhat encreaſed, and conſequently the Field of View thereby enlarged, which is the great Advantage of the Six-Glaſs Teleſcope.

WE ſhall now give the analytical Inveſtigation of the focal Diſtance of the three Glaſſes; in order to which,

Let $F = IP$, the focal Diſtance of the Glaſs H I.

$y = TP$, the focal Diſtance of the Glaſs U S.

$x = PO$, the focal Diſtance of the Lens M N.

And becauſe the Image W L is to be conſidered as an Object with regard to the Glaſs H I, therefore put $IV = d$, and $IZ = f$, and we ſhall have $\frac{Fd}{F+d} = f$, (as we have ſhewn in *Annot.* CXXV.) and from hence we get $d = \frac{Ff}{F-f}$.

But becauſe the ſimilar Triangles I Z X, I V L, and I T X, I P L, we have $f : d ::$ I Z : I V :: Z X : V L :: I X : I L :: I T : I P :: $f + y : d + x$; conſequently $f : d :: y : x$. Therefore $d = \frac{fx}{y} = \frac{Ff}{F-f}$. Hence we get $f = \frac{Fx - Fy}{x} = D - y$ (by putting $D = f + y =$ I T.) Whence laſtly, $x = \frac{Fy}{F + y - D}$; $y = \frac{Fx - xD}{F - x}$; $F = \frac{xD - xy}{x - y}$; $D = F + y - \frac{Fy}{x}$.

By

By theſe Theorems we ſolve any Problem relating to the Compoſition of Glaſſes for any given Power of Magnifying; for Inſtance, ſuppoſe the focal Diſtance x of the Lens M N, were $1\frac{1}{2}$ Inch, and that of the large Glaſs H I, *viz.* F = 3, to find the focal Diſtance y of the Lens U S, that is to be combined with it at the Diſtance D = 2 Inches, that ſhall magnify juſt as much as the ſingle Lens M N. We have the Anſwer by the ſecond Theorem, where $x = 1{,}5$; F = 3, and D = 2; hence $y = \frac{3 \times 1{,}5 - 1{,}5 \times 2}{3 - 1{,}5} = \frac{4{,}5 - 3}{1{,}5} = 1$. So the focal Diſtance of the Lens U S muſt be one Inch. If D = 1, then $y = 2$; and if D = 0, then Y = 3.

VI. *Of the latter Improvement of* REFRACTING *and* REFLECTING TELESCOPES.

BESIDES the laſt mentioned Conſtruction of Teleſcopes, which is to be looked upon only as a Correction of dioptric Inſtruments, there is of late another Improvement ſtill greater, which tends not only to leſſen the Abberation of Rays in refracted Light, but even to prevent any ſenſible Effects ariſing therefrom; and this

is done by Means of a *double* or *treble Object-Glaſs* in all thoſe Inſtruments where an Object is viewed by Means of its Image formed by refracted Light. The Conſtruction of a Teleſcope for this Purpoſe with two Object-Glaſſes in Fig. 3, where ABCD is a Plane Concave Lens of what is called *white Flint* Glaſs, and CDE a Double Convex Lens of *green* or *Crown* Glaſs; by Means of the different refractive Power of theſe two Sorts of Glaſs and their unequal Figures, it comes to paſs that, all the Rays of Light incident upon thoſe Glaſſes from diſtant radiant Objects, will paſs through them in ſuch a Manner, that whatever Abberation is occaſioned in the heterogeneal Rays in Refraction through the firſt Glaſs is ſo far corrected by the ſecond, that thoſe Rays emerge from it nearly parallel among themſelves, and are converged to one Focus (F) forming an Image IM, not ſenſibly compounded or coloured, and therefore more perfect and diſtinct when viewed by the Eye-Glaſſes than that can be which is made by a ſingle Object-Glaſs.

Plate IV. Fig. 3.

Now, if thoſe two Glaſſes could abſolutely prevent the Abberation of Rays, or produce an Image entirely free from Confuſion and Colours, then only three Eye-Glaſſes

Glaſſes would be neceſſary to view it, *viz.* E, G, H; for ſince, according to common Optics, the Lens H corrects the Errors ariſing from Refraction in the Lens E; and therefore if the Image I M be perfect, the ſecond Image K L will be ſo likewiſe, and therefore may be viewed diſtinct and without Colours by the Eye-Glaſs, or Lens G.

BUT we always find in the Conſtruction of thoſe Teleſcopes *five Eye-Glaſſes*, as they are uſually thought to be; though if you examine them, the Poſition of the firſt will be found within the focal Diſtance of the Compound Object-Glaſs, and therefore co-operates with it in forming the Image of external Objects; which Image, therefore, cannot be ſo purely *achromatic* as it would be if it were formed by the Double Object-Glaſs alone.

NOT only ſo, but the focal Diſtance of that achromatic Object-Glaſs is by Means of this Lens ſomewhat ſhortened, and the magnifying Power of the Teleſcope thereby diminiſhed. I can ſee no Reaſon for the Poſition of this Lens within the ſaid Focus of the Object-Glaſs, ſince, if all the five Eye-Glaſſes were placed without it, the ſame extenſive and more perfect *Field of View* would be

be obtained, and at the ſame time the Teleſcope would magnify more, and be *truly achromatic*, which now, ſtrictly ſpeaking, it really cannot be. But for more Satisfaction in this Matter, I ſhall refer the Reader to my *New* ELEMENTS of *Achromatic* OPTICS, in Six PARTS.

VII. *The Nature of* VISUAL GLASSES *explained, and ſhewn to be an Improvement of* Common Spectacles.

IN the firſt Edition of this Treatiſe I had no Occaſion to make Uſe of Spectacles, and therefore did not ſo thoroughly conſider their Nature, Form, and Uſe as ſince that I have done. It appears to me very wonderful, that an Inſtrument of the moſt common and neceſſary Uſe, ſhould have continued ſo long of a Form or Make quite contrary to that which the Theory of Optics and the Nature of Viſion require, and yet paſs unobſerved by thoſe who uſe them, and uncenſured by thoſe who have wrote on this Subject; eſpecially if it be conſidered that the erroneous Conſtruction is in itſelf moſt obvious, and in its Effects very prejudicial to the Sight.

THE

THE Fault of the common Spectacles conſiſts in two Particulars, *viz.* 1ſt, The Largeneſs of the Aperture or Diameter of the Glaſſes; and, 2dly, their oblique Poſition to the Axis of the Eye; both which muſt in Time have a very ſenſible Effect upon the Texture of that curious and delicate Organ of Sight, the EYE. But the Harm we receive being not immediately ſenſible, is not conſidered by common People, and therefore not regarded; and when at Length they find their Eyes weakened and impaired, they reckon it as the natural Conſequence of Age, without being apprized how far their Glaſſes have contributed to produce that Effect.

THAT the Area of the Glaſſes in common Spectacles is viſibly larger than is neceſſary, no Body will diſpute, when they conſider how ſmall the Pupil of the Eye is when compared therewith; and that no more Light can be uſeful than that which enters the Pupil. Suppoſe, for Inſtance, the Pupil of the Eye were $\frac{1}{5}$ Part of an Inch in Diameter (which is larger than any I have yet obſerved) and that the Glaſs be one Inch and a half in Diameter, then will the Area of the Glaſs be to that of the Pupil as 225 to 4, which is more than 50 to 1;

ſo that there is at leaſt 50 times more Light upon the Eye than is neceſſary for the Purpoſes of Viſion.

IF the Aperture of the Glaſs were no longer than that of the Pupil, though it would make the Object appear more diſtinct, there might not in all Caſes be Light enough to ſhew it ſo plainly as might be deſired; neither, as the Glaſſes are placed at a conſiderable Diſtance from the Eye, would there be a ſufficient Field of View. It is neceſſary therefore, that the Aperture of the Glaſſes ſhould be larger than that of the Pupil; and it is well known by Experience, that if the Aperture of the Glaſſes be $\frac{3}{4}$ of an Inch, it will anſwer all Purpoſes of reading, working, *&c.* by them, and in this Caſe but $\frac{1}{4}$ Part of the Light can come upon the Eye as goes to it through a common Spectacle-Glaſs; and therefore by excluding three Parts out of four of the ſuperfluous Light, muſt tend greatly to the Safety of the Eye, and procuring diſtinct Viſion of the Object.

WHOEVER conſiders the great Force which the Action of Light has, and the exquiſitely tender and minute Veſſels in the Compages of the Eye (exceeding that of any other Part of the Animal Syſtem) will not

not wonder, that if by ſo great a Quantity of Light which is thrown upon old Eyes by very convex Glaſſes, they ſhould become debilitated, weak, and watery in the Courſe of a few Years. So potent a Cauſe as that of Light by the Conſtancy of its Operation produces very conſiderable Effects, though by very ſlow Degrees. The conſtant Dripping of Water will in a Courſe of Time excavate the hardeſt Stone, though its immediate Effects be not in the leaſt diſcernible, nor any Thing more conſidered than the Action of Light upon the Eye.

THE Difference then between the Viſual Glaſſes is as repreſented in Figure 4, where A B is the open Glaſs, as in common Spectacles, and C D the Glaſs of a reduced Size in the *viſual Form*; the dark Part between that and the Steel Frame E F is a Black Zone or Circle of Horn in which the Glaſs is placed, and ſerves at the ſame Time as a Safe-guard and Defence to the Eye againſt extraneous Light. Fig. 4.

THE ſecond Thing in which the common Spectacles are moſt egregiouſly faulty, is their being placed direct before the Eye, or both in the ſame Plane, by which Means the Axes of the Glaſs and thoſe of the Eye make a conſiderable Angle with each other;

other; whereas they ought to coincide, or the Glaſſes ſhould be ſo placed before the Eye in two Planes equally inclined, that their Axes may both unite in the Object to which the Eye is directed, and they become one with the Axis of the Eye. To illuſtrate this, let A B be the two *common Spectacle*-Glaſſes, whoſe Axes A C and B D are parallel, and thereby directed to Objects only at an infinite Diſtance, quite contrary to the Deſign of theſe Glaſſes, which is to ſhew a near Object, as ſuppoſe G; then the Glaſſes E, F, are ſo placed in the *new viſual Form* as to have their Axes tending to, and uniting in that Point G; by which Means they become coincident with the Axis of the Eye, and the Rays of Light are regularly and equally refracted to the Pupil. And conſequently the Viſion or Appearance of an Object will by this Means be rendered the moſt natural and eaſy that it poſſibly can be; and indeed the Difference is ſo conſiderable, not only in itſelf, but likewiſe by Experience, that I may venture to prognoſticate, that in a few Years Time, after the Averſions which ariſe from Cuſtom, Intereſt, and Novelty are worn off, the *common Spectacles* will be looked upon as the *Opprobrium* of the Optical

Fig. 5.

Optical Science, and become equally in Contempt and Diſuſe; while the VISUAL GLASSES will approve themſelves the genuine Reſult of Optical Philoſophy, and be uſed at leaſt by all the prudent and thinking Part of Mankind. Thoſe who would ſee a larger Account of this Matter may conſual my *Eſſay on Viſual Glaſſes*, which has paſſed through four Editions.

VIII. *Deſcription and Uſes of the* EQUATORIAL TELESCOPE, *or* PORTABLE OBSERVATORY, *by Mr.* James Short, *F. R. S. who firſt adapted a Teleſcope to this Machinery.*

THIS Inſtrument conſiſts of two circular Planes or Plates, marked A A, which are ſupported upon four Pillars; and theſe are again ſupported upon a Croſs-foot, or Pedeſtal, moveable at each End by the four Screws B B B B: The two circular Plates A A are moveable, the one above the other, and are called the horizontal Plates, as repreſenting the Horizon of the Place; and upon the upper one are placed two Spirit-Levels, to render them at all times horizontal: Theſe Levels are fixed at Right-Angles to one another: This upper Plate is moved by a Handle C, which is called

called the Horizontal Handle, and is divided into 360°, and has a *Nonius* Index divided into every three Minutes.

ABOVE this horizontal Plate there is a Semicircle DD, divided into twice 90°; which is called the Meridian Semicircle, as repreſenting the Meridian of the Place, and is moved by a Handle E, which is called the Meridian Handle, and has a *Nonius* Index divided into every three Minutes.

ABOVE this Meridian Semicircle is faſtened a circular Plate, upon which are affixed two other circular Plates F F, moveable the one upon the other, and are called the Equatorial Plates; one of them repreſenting the Plane of the Equator, is divided into twice 12 Hours, and theſe are ſubdivided into every 10 Minutes of Time. This Plate is moved by a Handle G, called the Equatorial Handle, and has a *Nonius* Index for ſhewing every Minute.

ABOVE this Equatorial Plate there is a Semicircle H H, which is called the Declination-Semicircle, as repreſenting the Half of a Circle of Declination, or horary Circle, and is divided into twice 90°, being moved by the Handle K, which is called the Declination-Handle. It has alſo a *Nonius*

a *Nonius* Index for ſubdividing into every three Minutes.

ABOVE this Declination-Semicircle is faſtened a Reflecting Teleſcope I. I., of the *Gregorian* Conſtruction, the focal Length of its great Speculum being 18 Inches.

IN order to adjuſt the Inſtrument for Obſervation, the firſt thing to be done, is to make the Horizontal Plates level or horizontal, by means of the two Spirit-Levels, and the four Screws in the Croſs-Pedeſtal. This being done, you move the Meridian Semicircle, by means of the Meridian Handle, ſo as to raiſe the Equatorial Plates to the Elevation of the Equator of the Place; which is equal to the Complement of the Latitude (and which, if not known, may likewiſe be found by this Inſtrument, as ſhall be afterwards ſhewn). And thus the Inſtrument is ready for Obſervation.

To find the Hour of the Day, and Meridian of the Place.

FIRST find, from aſtronomical Tables, the Sun's Declination for the Day, and for that particular Time of the Day; then ſet the Declination-Semicircle to the Declination of the Sun, taking particular Notice whether it is North or South, and ſet the Declination-Semicircle accordingly.

You then turn about the Horizontal Handle, and the Equatorial Handle, both at the ſame time, till you find the Sun preciſely concentrical with the Field of the Teleſcope. If you have a Clock or Watch at Hand, mark that Inſtant of Time; and by looking upon the Equatorial Plate, and *Nonius* Index, you will find the Hour and Minute of the Day, which comparing with the Time ſhewn by the Clock or Watch, ſhews how much either of them differ from the Sun. In this manner you find the Hour of the Day.

Now, in order to find the Meridian of the Place, and conſequently to have a Mark, by which you may always know your Meridian again, you firſt move the Equatorial Plate, by Means of the Equatorial Handle, till the Meridian of the Plate or Hourline of 12. is in the Middle of the *Nonius* Index; and then, by turning about the Declination-Handle till the Teleſcope comes down to the Horizon, you obſerve the Place or Point which is then in the Middle of the Field of the Teleſcope; and a ſuppoſed Line drawn from the Centre of this Field to that Point in the Horizon, is your Meridian Line. The beſt Time of the Day for making this Obſervation for finding your Meridian, is about

about three Hours before Noon, or as much after Noon. The Meridian of the Place may be found by this Method ſo exact, that that it will not differ at any time from the true Meridian above 10r Time, and if a proper Allowance be made for the Refraction at the Time of Obſervation, it may be found much more exact. This Line thus found will be of uſe to ſave Trouble afterwards; and is, indeed, the Foundation of all aſtronomical Obſervations.

To find a Star or Planet in the Day-time, even at Noon-Day.

THE Inſtrument remaining as rectified in the laſt Experiment, you ſet the Declination-Semicircle to the Declination of the Star or Planet you want to ſee; and then you ſet the Equatorial Plate to the Right Aſcenſion of the Star or Planet at that time, and, looking through the Teleſcope, you will ſee the Star or Planet; and after you have once got into the Field, you cannot loſe it: For, as the diurnal Motion of a Star is parallel to the Equator, by your moving the Equatorial Handle ſo as to follow it, you will at any time, while

it is above the Horizon, recover it, if it be gone out of the Field.

THE eaſieſt Method for ſeeing a Star or Planet in the Day-time is this: Your Inſtrument being adjuſted as before directed, you bring the Teleſcope down ſo as to look directly at your Meridian Mark; and then you ſet it to the Declination, and Right Aſcenſion, as before-mentioned.

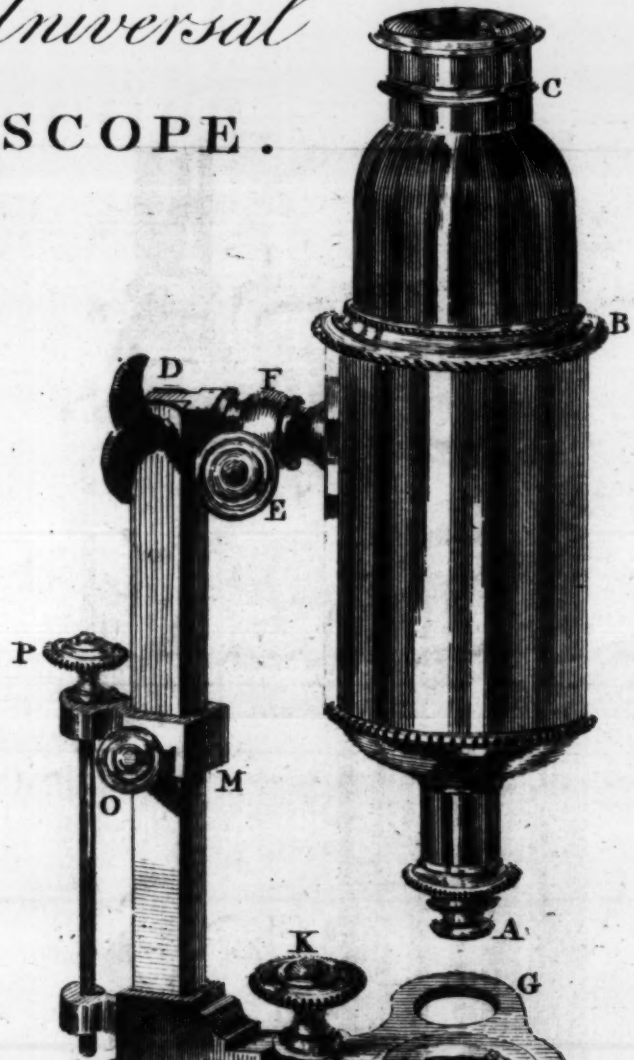
BY this Inſtrument moſt of the Stars of the firſt and ſecond Magnitude have been ſeen even at Mid-day, and the Sun ſhining bright; as alſo *Mercury*, *Venus*, and *Jupiter*: *Saturn* and *Mars* are not ſo eaſy to be ſeen, upon account of the Faintneſs of their Light, except when the Sun is but a few Hours above the Horizon.

AND in the ſame manner in the Night-time, when you can ſee a Star, Planet, or any new Phænomenon, ſuch as a Comet, you may find its Declination and Right Aſcenſion immediately, by turning about the Equatorial Handle, and Declination Handle, till you ſee the Star, Planet, or Phænomenon; and then, looking upon the Equatorial Plate, you find its Right Aſcenſion in time; and you find upon the Declination-Semicircle, its Declination in Degrees and Minutes.

IN

The Universal Compound MICROSCOPE.

B. MARTIN, Inv.t



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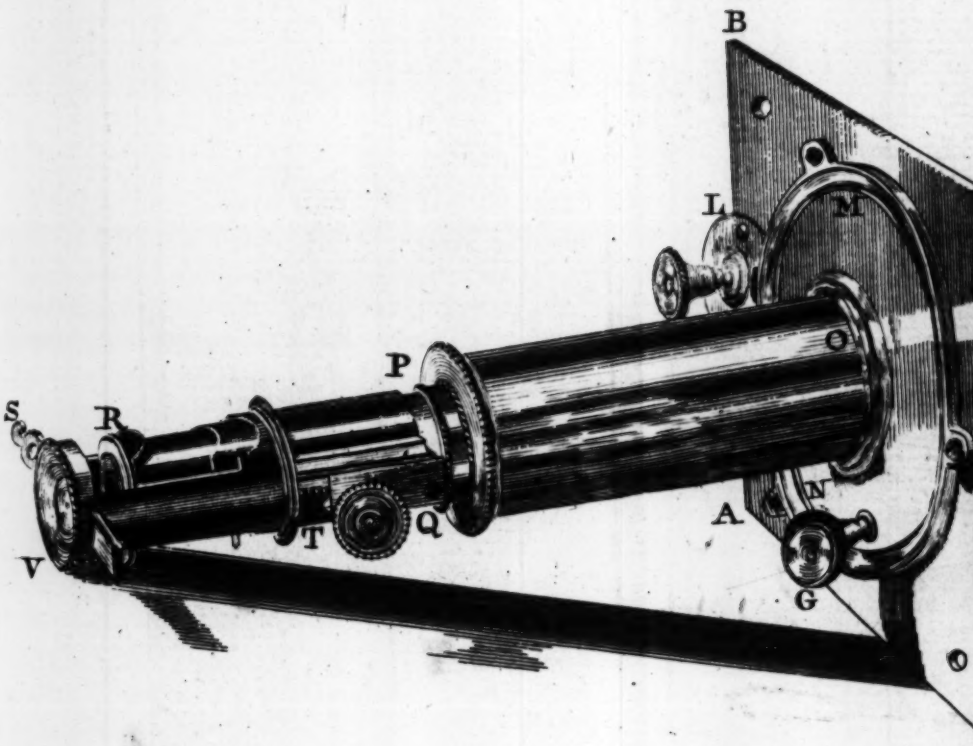
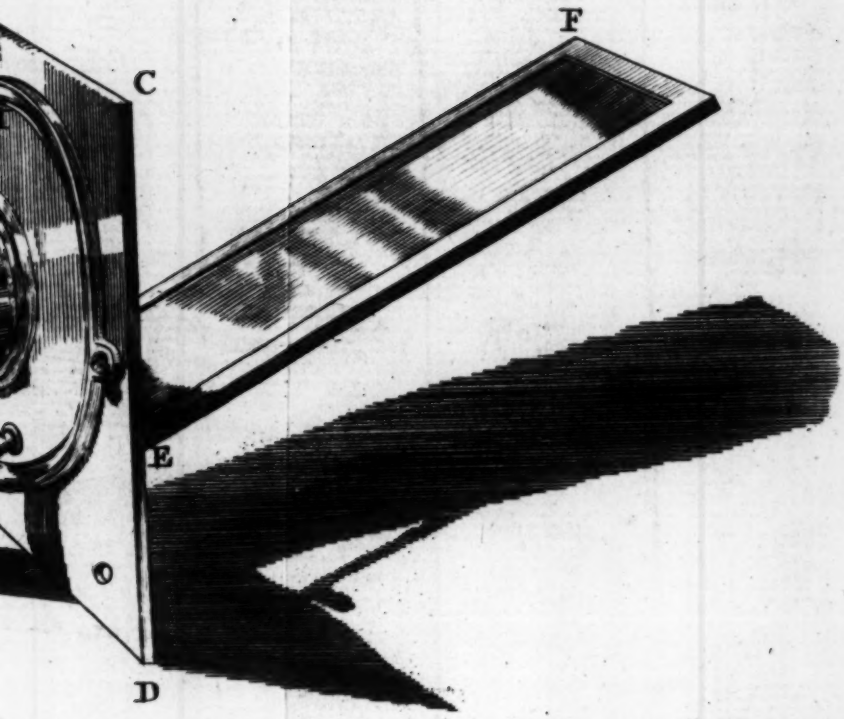
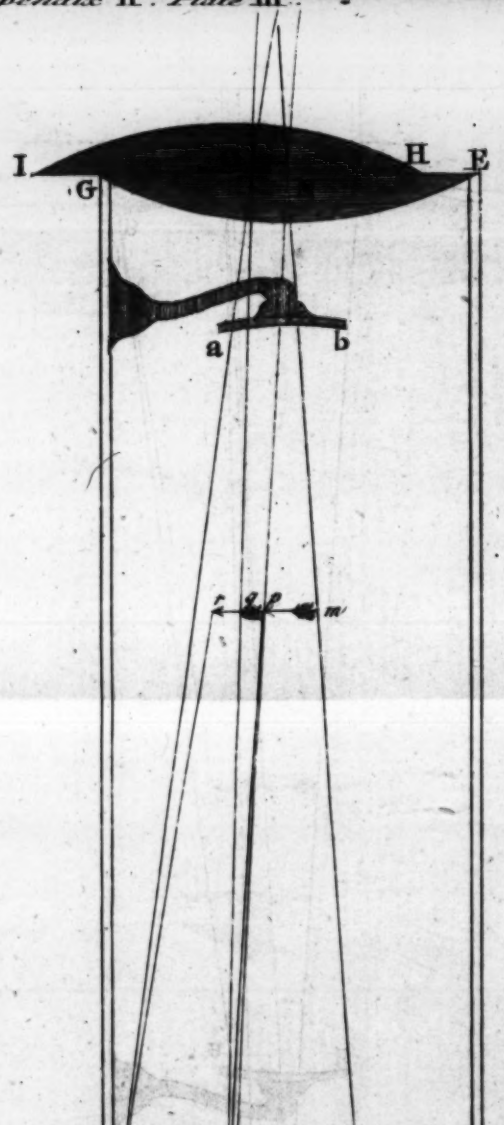
Appendix II. *Plate* II.

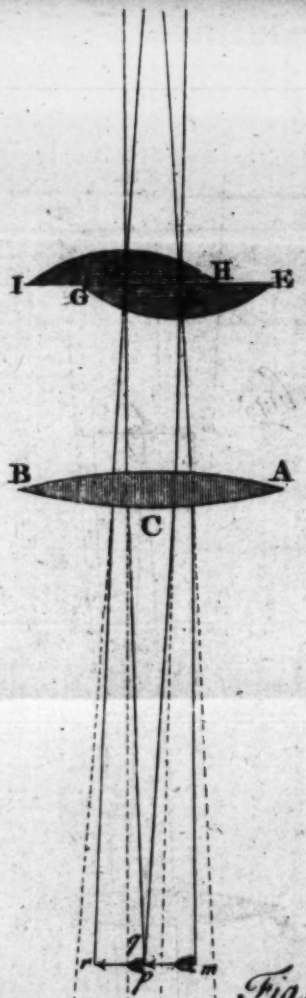
The New, SOLAR *M*



MICROSCOPE.







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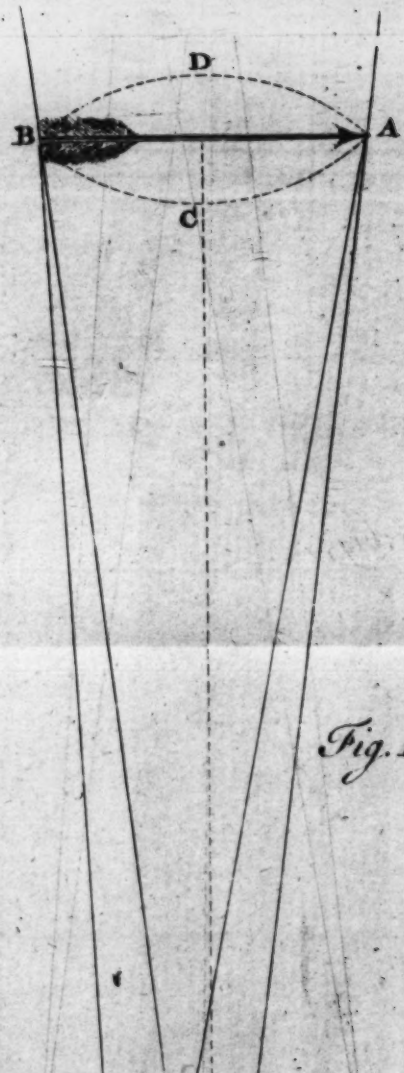
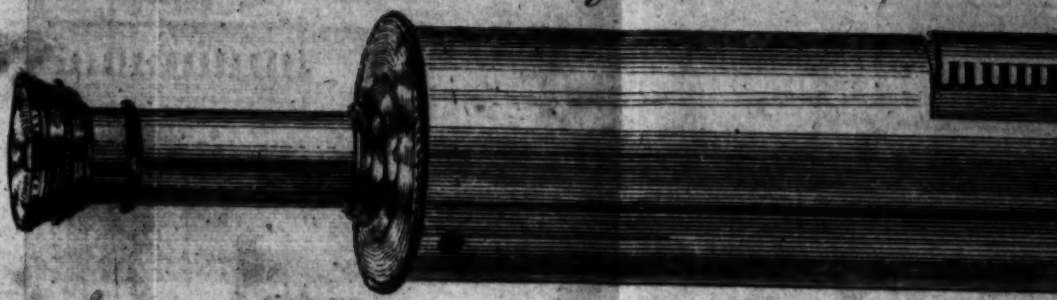
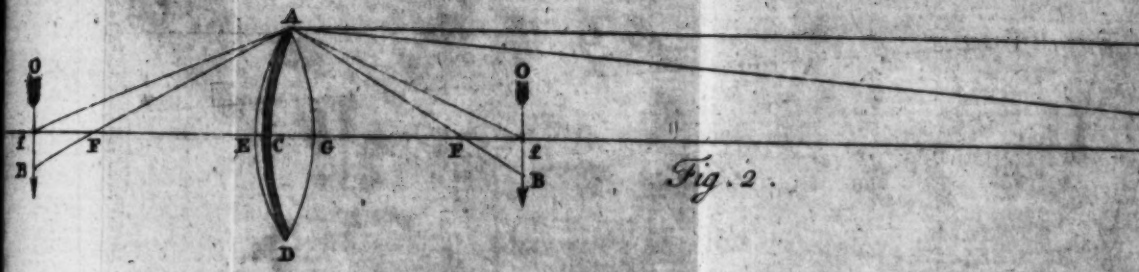


Fig. 1.

Fig. 3.

Fig. 1.





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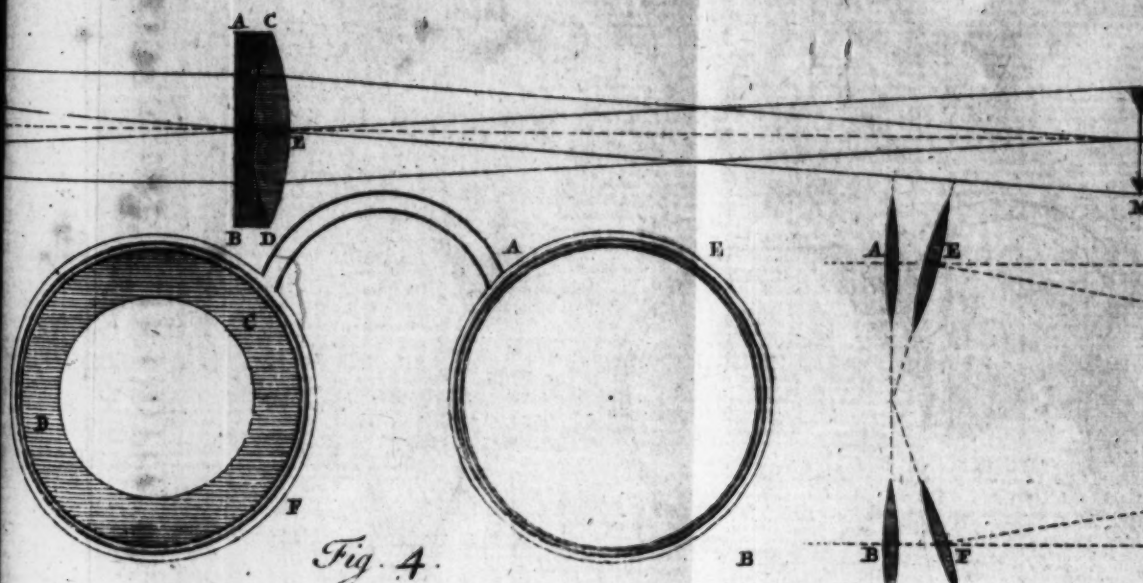

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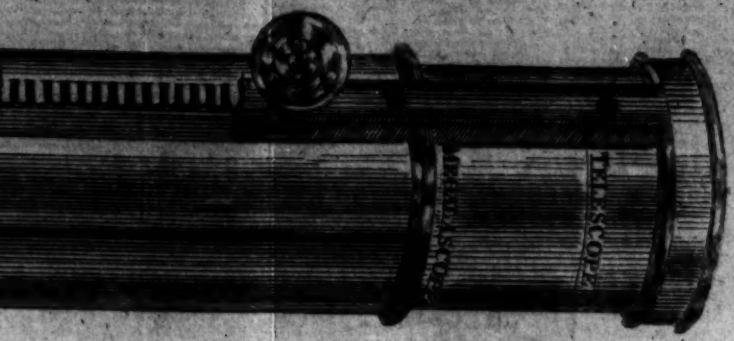

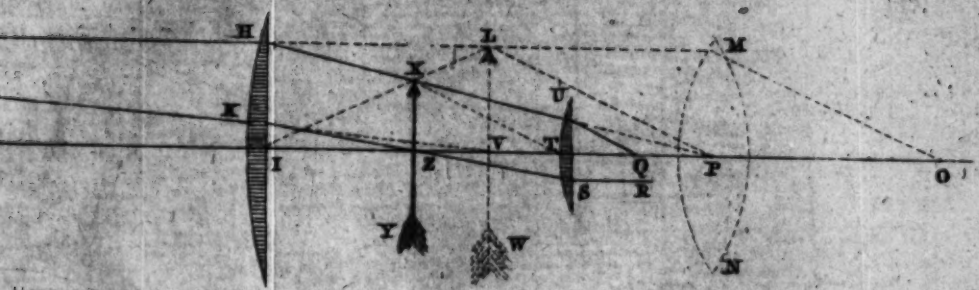

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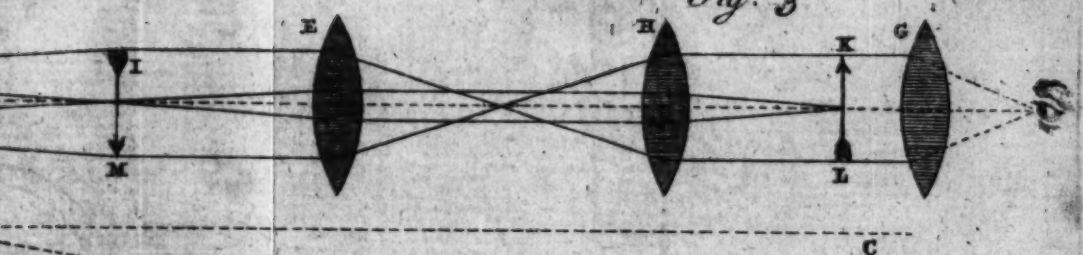

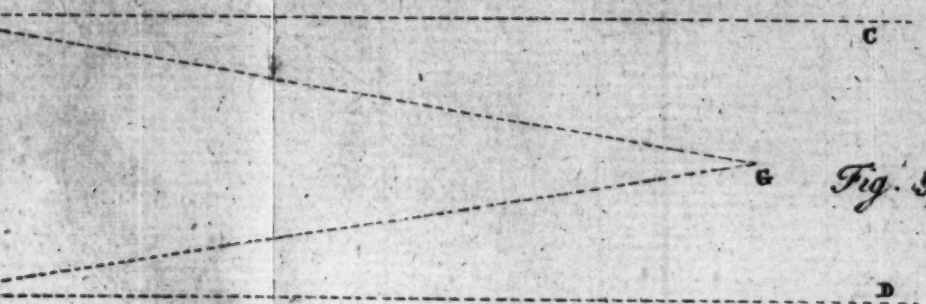

Fig. 5

The EQUATORIAL TELESCOPE.

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L

IN order to have the other Uſes of this Inſtrument, you muſt make the Equatorial Plates become parallel to the Horizontal Plates; and then this Inſtrument becomes an *Equal Altitude Inſtrument*, a *Tranſit Inſtrument*, a *Theodolite*, a *Quadrant*, an *Azimuth Inſtrument*, and a *Level*. The manner of applying it to theſe different Purpoſes is too obvious to need any Explanation.

As there is alſo a Box with a magnetic Needle faſtened in the lower Plate of this Inſtrument, by it you may adjuſt the Inſtrument nearly in the Meridian; and by it likewiſe you may find the Variation of the Needle: If you ſet the Horizontal Meridian, and the Equatorial Meridian, in the Middle of their *Nonius* Indexes, and direct your Teleſcope to your Meridian Mark, you obſerve how many Degrees from the Meridian of the Box the Needle points at; and this Diſtance or Difference is the Variation of the Needle.

AN

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